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## THE FRENCH EMPEROR AND THE NEW YEAR.

IT is something, on the first day of 1866, to learn that the French EMPEROR has said nothing. This is the best and most cheering salutation that he could bestow on the New Year. The political sky, as far as France is concerned, seemed in truth tolerably clear; but Jove sometimes makes his presence known, as HORACE sings, by thundering in a clear sky. A year which is possibly destined to be eventful has thus been allowed to make its entrance in comparative tranquillity. Even the POPE feels the softening influence of the season, and with unusual moderation has been content to compare himself to a Sacred Person in the garden of Gethsemane, without pointing to anybody in particular as JUDAS, HEROD, or PONTIUS PILATE. Perhaps it is not extravagant to believe that the French Empire and its chief are beginning steadily to appreciate the comfort of being at peace with all the world. By good fortune and genius combined, NAPOLEON III. has landed the French nation on a political position which would not be greatly strengthened even by the enlargement of their frontiers. Matters were very different when he first mounted the throne. From an Imperialist point of view, the French had much to regain that they had lost. There was always a danger of a fresh European coalition hostile to the new dynasty; the diplomatic influence of the country had been impaired by the weakness and selfishness of successive Orleanist Ministers, and ruined by the vagaries of a shortlived Republic; and Austria had virtually succeeded, since the beginning of the century, in occupying Italy with reactionary outposts in the shape of Governments dependent on herself. All this has been rectified by the events of the last fourteen years. Something, too, the EMPEROR has gained in the moral estimation of his contemporaries. It is impossible for Englishmen to sympathize with despotism in any shape, or with the assault upon a country's liberties which an Imperial usurpation involves; but, apart from questions of French domestic politics, Liberal Europe is ready to confess that the EMPEROR seems disposed to use his authority for good. On many occasions he has displayed moderation, if not magnanimity; and in international controversies he appreciates usually the claims of the juster cause. This is a position of much authority and dignity, and NAPOLEON III. could not improve upon it if he planted the French eagles over Antwerp or Genoa, or upon the Rhine. A restless nation, under the rule of an adventurous family, must always be anxiously regarded by its neighbours; but the EMPEROR can afford at last to bestow on France that incalculable blessing of quiet for which all wise Frenchmen long.

In surveying the year that has just closed, NAPOLEON III. may reasonably feel that neither in his foreign nor in his domestic policy has he lost ground. As a political speculation, his non-interference in the affair of the Duchies of the Elbe has proved successful. After months of ostentatious reserve, the EMPEROR finds himself virtually in a situation to dictate his own terms to Prussia or to Austria. He has achieved this triumph without sacrificing either the goodwill of any Continental Power, or his own fixed idea of consulting the populations of Schleswig-Holstein on the subject of their own destiny. This is a remarkable feat, and deserves the admiration of all European diplomatists. The English Foreign Office in particular may learn from this example that Foreign Ministers do not lose influence by saying little, and saying that little courteously. With the progress of Italian affairs during the last twelve months, France has no reason to be dissatisfied. The Italian Monarchy, and all possible Italian Ministers, are committed to the carrying out of the September Convention with frankness and good faith. In spite of the breach between the Papacy and the King of ITALY, it is evident that His HOLINESS is making violent efforts to be polite; and his prayers for the EMPEROR, the EMPRESS, and the little PRINCE IMPERIAL are not offensively suggestive of the passages in the Litany

in which the Church intercedes for its enemies and oppressors. In the awkward matter of an Encyclical which was probably meant to be a formal attack on the history, the institutions, and the principles of the French nation, the Imperial Executive displayed both temperance and firmness, and vindicated French law without insulting unnecessarily a weak Pontiff. This is not all that France has gained. Time has softened the bitterness caused by the refusal of England to enter a general Congress, and an amicable feeling now once more exists between the two countries, which will not perhaps be lessened by the departure of Lord RUSSELL from the English Foreign Office. On the other side of the Atlantic a cloud has made its appearance, which at present is not bigger than a man's hand, but may swell at any moment into bulk and volume. The reunion of the United States brings the EMPEROR face to face with the most serious difficulty that besets his cherished plans for Mexico. The Mexican expedition may be almost said to be the one false step to which he has pledged himself. The French people are less interested than theorists like M. MICHEL CHEVALIER in the fortunes of an imaginary Latin race; and when in course of time the French troops are honourably withdrawn, Frenchmen in general will not repine. The chief question for the coming year is whether the EMPEROR will be able to withdraw his forces without sacrificing his prestige or wounding the vanity of the nation. If the American Ministry continues to preserve a tone of courtesy and moderation, it may not be difficult to strike out some course that will not involve any humiliation to either party. It can be no object either to France or America to break a traditional *entente cordiale* for the sake of an abstract MONROE doctrine or a race that exists principally upon paper. Much political curiosity has been recently awakened, both within France and without, by the decease of the venerable King of the BELGIANS. LEOPOLD II. has been peaceably installed in his father's seat; and should he unexpectedly exhibit his father's political prudence, a Belgian crisis need not at present be added to the other complications and perplexities of the Continent.

Domestic events during 1865 have served to show that NAPOLEON III. is more firmly seated in his Imperial saddle than his personal enemies could wish. He has been strong enough to pay a long visit to Algeria, and his African tour, notwithstanding recent Algerian disturbances, will not be without useful fruit in that most unsuccessful of colonies. While he was away, his nearest kinsman and the President of his Privy Council took an ungenerous opportunity of inveighing against the most prominent features of the Imperial policy. The EMPEROR restored discipline and silence in the ranks of his own family, by rebuking and disgracing his powerful and unscrupulous cousin; and public opinion in France pronounced unmistakably in favour of the Imperial absentee. The debates in the Legislative Assembly and in the Senate have, during the past year, been conducted without serious damage to the dignity of the Government. M. THIERS, in a financial speech of importance, exposed the patent weaknesses of a Budget which no one professes to understand or to approve; but the prestige of M. THIERS as a controversialist has been almost entirely destroyed by the reactionary tone in which he ventured to treat of contemporary European politics. M. EMILE OLLIVIER is still isolated in the Chamber; but his attitude is not on that account the less significant or important. He would long since have abandoned it if it were not that he is supported by a growing conviction out of doors that the French EMPEROR must be accepted during the remainder of his lifetime. This sentiment has been produced by His MAJESTY's able conduct of affairs, by his untiring industry, and by his extraordinary talent for conciliating those who are brought into personal contact with him. The first NAPOLEON found little difficulty in filling his Court with old Legitimists, and year by year the barriers that separate old political partisans from the Second Empire seem to become weaker. The press is still muzzled; but the nation

wearied of the past excesses and the present sycophancy of Parisian journalists, takes only a languid interest in their fate. The Catholics of France have not succeeded, since the publication of the Encyclical, in proving that they possess more domestic power than that with which they are credited by M. PERSIGNY and the EMPEROR's advisers. They seem to be just sufficiently strong to prevent M. DURUY from treating them with contempt, and to exert a prejudicial influence on the progress of the cause of popular education. Under all these circumstances, it would not be unnatural if the French Government had seriously resolved to reduce its enormous military establishment. If the French army is not wanted abroad, it is probable that it will not be wanted at home.

Safe as the EMPEROR may consider his own life-tenure, nothing has happened during the year to reassure him as to the ulterior prospects of his dynasty. The death of M. MORNY has been to him, in this respect, a severe discouragement and loss. In a burst of loyalty, a military and salaried Senator took occasion, in the spring, to inform his colleagues that in case of the EMPEROR's decease the army and the Senate would at once rally round the EMPRESS and her son; but he pardonably forgot, until he was reminded by the watchful PRESIDENT, to take into his calculations the rest of the French nation. The fidelity of a well-paid Senate might possibly be counted upon; that of the army is less secure; but the masses from which the army is drawn, and with which it invariably sympathizes, have no warm prejudices in favour of the rule of a pious woman and a clever child. Such is the inconstancy of the French nation, that the heir to the Crown, if he lives, will doubtless some day or other have a fair chance of dispossessing any legitimate or other pretender that has for a time displaced him; but he must be a bold or an obsequious prophet who dares to predict that the line of CÆSARS will continue long unbroken. It is the genius of the present occupant of the throne that reconciles to his sway the commercial classes on the one hand, and the democratic party on the other. When the charm is broken by death, the antagonism of the *bourgeoisie* and the *proletariat* will revive in all its intensity, and neither has anything to gain by espousing the cause of a feeble feminine Regent. Among the ranks of one at least of the exiled Royal families there are men who are fitted to wear and to adorn any European Crown; but both ORLEANISTS and BOURBONS would have to contend against an inveterate and, in some respects, an unjust prejudice on the part of the French populace. After NAPOLEON III. nothing seems possible except another Republic, if not another Deluge; and Europe takes this into account in balancing the merits and demerits of the French Empire.

#### THE JAMAICA COMMISSION.

THE selection of Commissioners to inquire into the Jamaica disturbances is good as far as it goes. The Recorder of LONDON has perhaps had more judicial experience than any practising member of the Bar, and his character will add weight to the results of an investigation which he will conduct with ability and temper. Mr. MAULE also is an able and learned lawyer; but the Government would act wisely in adding another member to a merely professional Commission. Parliament and the country wish to be satisfied on questions of political justice and expediency, as well as on the literal conformity to law of the measures which have been adopted. Mr. RUSSELL GURNEY and Mr. MAULE may perhaps be competent to form sound opinions on the whole subject-matter of inquiry, but the exclusive selection of lawyers is always understood to imply the purpose of obtaining a strictly legal Report. The acting GOVERNOR, indeed, of the colony is properly included in the Commission; but although Sir HENRY STOKES is not a lawyer, he is at the same time not a statesman. A soldier who has shown administrative talent in the management of a military prison may be well qualified to preserve order in a turbulent or alarmed community; but Sir HENRY STOKES is not familiar with constitutional government, and in the Ionian Islands he exhibited an exceptional incapacity to appreciate justice in the sense in which it is understood by civilians. Mr. CARDWELL would have no difficulty in finding some experienced and trustworthy public servant who would form a dispassionate judgment on the disaffection or conspiracy of the negroes, and who would attach due weight to any apologies which might be offered for the subsequent proceedings of the civil and military authorities. Veterans of the Civil Service, members or ex-members of Parliament, and retired Indian and Colonial Governors, offer a wide range of choice to a judicious Minister. A strictly judicial Report will be

valuable for certain purposes, but the lawyers of the Commission ought to be aided by a layman who will not be inclined to deviate into the opposite extreme of Court-martial justice. It might be injudicious to render sound advice less acceptable by suggesting the names of many competent persons whose services might be commanded by the Government. It is at least satisfactory to know that the inquiry will be honestly conducted; and, until the Report appears, popular agitation will be discouraged by all impartial politicians. The officers and the journalists who boasted of wholesale slaughter will probably succeed in proving that many of their own statements were exaggerated or untrue; and 'tis almost certain that the local Government must be able to prove the existence of a danger which has hitherto been simply alleged with a stupid indifference to the necessity for producing at least plausible evidence. Mr. RUSSELL GURNEY and Mr. MAULE will, if necessary, explain to Mr. EYRE that the expression of a man's countenance, whether he is white or black, is not admitted, in English Courts, as even a *prima facie* proof of guilt. It is not a little surprising that, six weeks after the disturbance of Morant Bay, the GOVERNOR should have transmitted to the Legislative Council "a further proof," contained in a letter from Colonel WHITFIELD, "that a mighty danger threatens the land." This new and convincing evidence consists of a statement that "men of sullen and dissatisfied looks are riding about the country in all directions. About one half of the negroes look happy and contented, the remainder as if they would take much pleasure in cutting our throats." An Anabaptist preacher or a cynic might infer that half the negroes are glad to have escaped capital punishment, while the other half resent or fear the flogging and hanging of themselves, their friends, and their relations. A soldier may be excused for circulating idle gossip about smiles or frowns; his twaddle becomes blameable only when it is made the substance of an official communication.

Mr. CARDWELL, in his speech at Oxford, seemed to intimate an opinion not unfavourable to Mr. EYRE; but perhaps he may only have adhered to the wise and generous rule of supporting a subordinate officer as long as his conduct is not definitively censured and disavowed. Those who are not bound to practise similar reticence will think it unnecessary even to suspend the expression of a belief that Governor EYRE, in the familiar phrase, lost his head after the outbreak, and that to the dates of the last accounts from Jamaica he had not yet recovered his equanimity. The Commissioners will ascertain the truth about the Maroons, the Volunteers, and the Courts-martial, but no Commission is needed to record the Parliamentary proceedings of the GOVERNOR, the Legislative Council, and the Assembly. As the GOVERNOR was supported by a majority in both branches of the Legislature, and as neither the Council nor the Assembly was suspected of sympathy with rebellion, it is evident that there could be no pressing necessity for a change in the Colonial Constitution. The negroes, indeed, and their Anabaptist advisers, had, with or without reason, complained of the exclusive character of a Parliament which was accused of consulting only the interests of the whites; but as the GOVERNOR had uniformly denied the justice of the charge, which indeed would be more applicable to his own new-fangled Legislature, his proposal that the representatives of the people should immolate themselves for the good of the country cannot be explained as a concession to the demands of political malcontents. The whole scheme is so absurdly ill-timed that it seems almost irrelevant to observe that the Council and the Assembly have exceeded their powers. They were not elected for the purpose of abolishing themselves and their successors, and disfranchising all the existing constituencies. If the English Parliament were, within a week of the commencement of the Session, to pass a Bill for suppressing both Houses, an astonished community, though it might not at once discern a legal remedy, would only hesitate between imputations of treason and charges of madness. The Legislative Council of Jamaica is not a House of Lords, nor is the Assembly a House of Commons. Their gratuitous confession of their own unfitness to discharge the duties for which they were elected is not calculated to secure deference to their judgment when they effect a lawless revolution. Members who are said to represent only a minority of the inhabitants suddenly resolve to abdicate in favour of a body which will be chosen by the narrowest oligarchy; yet the Legislative Chamber itself can scarcely pass more extravagant laws than the Bill for the prevention of rebellious proceedings. According to this remarkable project of law, any writer or printer convicted of seditious publication by any Court which the GOVERNOR may appoint is



liable to seven years' imprisonment with hard labour. It is possible that, in certain abnormal conditions of society, a despot or dictator may be indispensable as the only instrument for preserving or restoring order. A Parliament which represents only the ruling faction is likely to be far more tyrannical; and even if its measures are moderate and just, they are regarded with suspicion and dislike. If Jamaica is subjected to a provisional administration, the authority ought to be placed in the hands of impartial Englishmen.

It would seem, from Mr. CARDWELL's language, that the Commissioners have not been instructed to inquire into the condition of Jamaica before the disturbances. The limitation of their functions may have been prudent, as it is generally desirable not to confuse judicial investigation with political controversy. The local advocates of the Government appear scarcely to understand the causes of the excitement which has been felt in England. The accuracy of Dr. UNDERHILL's statements has little connection with the question whether there was a negro conspiracy; and it is still more remote from the graver charge, against Mr. EYRE and his officers, of unjustifiable cruelty. Oppressive taxes can have afforded no excuse for a massacre of whites; nor, on the other hand, was a riot, if it fell short of insurrection, a sufficient reason for wholesale executions of blacks. The trial and punishment of GORDON is not to be vindicated by proofs of the highly probable fact that he was a spiteful and troublesome demagogue. It is not a capital crime to say or to write that a Governor governs ill, that an Assembly passes bad laws, or even that Jamaica ought, in some vague and metaphorical sense, to be made into a Hayti. The philanthropists and the preachers have made a mistake in canonizing GORDON, but they may perhaps succeed in showing that he was illegally executed, and illegal execution is at least technically murder. If, however, the explanations which are offered are in some respects beside the mark, they tend to prove that the political grievances of the negro population were in a great degree fictitious or imaginary. A Jamaica correspondent of the *Daily Telegraph* has furnished an instructive account of the constitution of the colony, and of the actual state of the representation. It appears that the "old slaveholding class," which is supposed by Exeter Hall to persevere in its former oppression of the blacks, contributes one member out of sixteen to the Legislative Council, and six members out of forty-seven to the House of Assembly. "The total number of Christian whites in the House is 24; and as the utmost stretch of liberality cannot include the 'Jews and coloured men among the representatives of the 'old slaveholding class,' it is clear that that class has no large majority. There are 13 brown men and 10 Jews, making 23, against 24 Christian whites." The writer adds that parties in the House are not divided according to colour or creed, and that the friends of the black are as likely to be found among the old slaveholders as in any other class.

If the Parliament represents the minority, the fault rests with the negroes themselves. Every taxpayer of 1*l.* a year, every owner of a freehold of the saleable value of 6*l.*, is entitled to a vote, irrespectively of race or colour. Every man who chooses to save a sovereign can buy half an acre of land, which will give him a vote, if he has industry enough to build a hut on it, without any further outlay of money. A labouring man can earn 1*s.* 4*d.* a day all the year round, and he can live comfortably on 6*d.* a day. The negroes refuse to work more than four hours a day, deliberately preferring short time and short wages to regular labour with the franchise; yet a large number of them keep horses to ride, and asses to take their produce to market, and distress for provisions is altogether unknown. According to a local paper, the district round Morant Bay was a "perfect garden of plenty," and some scores of settlers, "who have been mixed up with the rebellion, and reaped the 'just reward of their deeds, owned as many as twenty acres of coffee. All likewise possessed horses, mules, and asses. 'Poverty was a word unknown among them.' It is of course possible that such a population may have been oppressed by bad laws or unjust administration, but the constitutional remedy was within the hands of the sufferers, if they chose to avail themselves of their opportunities. Mr. CARDWELL was justified in telling the Jamaica negroes, in his despatch to Mr. EYRE, that their chief misfortune was disinclination to work. Their disaffection and their bloodthirsty purpose have perhaps been exaggerated, but the white inhabitants of Jamaica believe so far in a conspiracy as to have been thoroughly frightened. In a free country, popular agitators have a legal, if not a moral, right to address public meetings on the misconduct of a Government or of a ruling class; but whether a multitude of half-civilized disciples of black preachers forms a safe audience is a question for legislators to

consider. The liberties of Jamaica may possibly require to be curtailed, but neglect to take measures of precaution can afford no excuse for violent retribution.

#### MR. BRIGHT AT ROCHDALE.

MR. BRIGHT governs, although he does not reign. When, at this critical time, he declares his views on Reform, and specifies with precision what is the kind of measure he thinks possible and desirable, the Cabinet cannot avoid being to some extent guided by his views and anxious to meet his wishes. That he should have sketched a distinct proposal undoubtedly involves them in a difficulty; for should they eventually adopt, with more or less of closeness, what he suggests, they will be exposed to the reproach of having learnt their lesson from him, and of being under the dictation of a man who terrifies and disgusts a very large portion of the public. On the other hand, it is of the greatest advantage to them that they should know what it is that the extremest section of their party think reasonable to ask, and that there should be no dark and mysterious standard by which their policy may be judged, and to which they may be suddenly called on to conform. Mr. BRIGHT, too, in offering a definite scheme, has had to accept the limitations which are inevitably forced on men when they pass from vague and shadowy plans of vast alterations to proposals of change that can be expected to receive the sanction of Parliament. It shows at once a keen appreciation of the necessity of consulting the views of men who are not Reformers, and also the great effect which currents of thought alien to his own have produced on Mr. BRIGHT, that he now announces it as his decided opinion that no proposition for disfranchising the small boroughs should be made at present. He wants to have a Bill passed, and he knows that it will be very difficult to persuade the representatives of small boroughs to vote for their own extinction. He even goes so far as to own that it would be scarcely handsome in them to be so careless of the wishes and interests of their constituents. But he also defends the retention of small boroughs on a new ground. He now looks on representation as properly the representation of classes, not of individuals. The working-class is not represented now; but, if the franchise is lowered, it will be represented in large towns, though probably not in small ones. This, whether consciously or unconsciously, whether said sincerely or insincerely, marks a new phase in Mr. BRIGHT's opinions. Hitherto five millions of silent adult males have been described as sighing, through him, that the franchise which is their birth-right is denied them. Now these silent millions are turned into a class which, as much as other classes, ought to have a voice in the representation.

The evils of entrusting the franchise to a certain class of small boroughs are so great, the proud privilege of being a British elector is made by beer and bribes such a degrading curse to many petty helpless shopkeepers, that one of the chief reasons which could recommend a Reform Bill would be the hope of getting rid of these sad scenes of national disgrace. If the smaller boroughs are to go on in order that different classes may be properly represented, we shall be treating the electors of those boroughs much as the supporters of the Temporal Power treat the unfortunate Romans when they condemn them to a perpetuity of demoralization for the general good of the Catholic world. But it must be acknowledged that, if it were once agreed that Parliament must be induced, at all hazards, to pass a Reform Bill of some sort next Session, and that the object of this Reform Bill should be to admit working-men as a class to be represented among other classes, the retention of small boroughs coupled with a lowering of the franchise would afford as good a chance of effecting what was aimed at as any measure that could be easily devised. Mr. BRIGHT, however, immediately sets to work to demolish the fabric he has reared. This Reform Bill in which the small boroughs are retained is to be only a preparatory measure. Another Reform Bill is to follow, in which the small boroughs are to be swept away. The class of silent adults is to be freed from the artificial check of a combination which ensures that, while they are represented, other classes shall be represented also. This is not encouraging either to the small boroughs or to the classes that are now in possession of the franchise. Mr. BRIGHT apparently regards the ballot as a much smaller matter; but it is disheartening to learn that this too is in reserve for us, whether we like it or not, and that the new Bill, instead of preserving us from a future of universal suffrage, ballot-boxes, and caucuses, is to be merely a stepping-stone towards them. Mr. BRIGHT may have thought that it was necessary to hold out visions of such a future in order not to seem too moderate to his

friends at Rochdale; and perhaps, when the Session begins, he may find it more expedient to treat the retention of the small boroughs as providing a satisfactory mode by which the classes of society above the lowest may continue to command a fair share of the government of the country. Still, as he has once shown what the ultimate fate of the small boroughs is to be, he will appeal to the selfishness of the present electors and representatives of small boroughs rather than to their acceptance of a political theory. He will suggest to them that, whatever may happen in times to come, all the good that is to be got out of small boroughs will last their day; and indisputably a man who has just bought his way into Parliament will be consoled by knowing that, according to Mr. BRIGHT's plan, there is every hope of his being able to buy his way there for a reasonable length of time. Mr. BRIGHT seems perfectly aware that, if he wants a large body of men to act with him, he must not suppose that the motives on which they act will be very high and noble ones. Two terrors haunt the minds of members who speculate on a Reform Bill, apart from such patriotic fears as they may entertain for the nation—the fear lest a Reform Bill should entail an immediate dissolution, and the fear lest it should make it difficult for them to find a seat. Mr. BRIGHT endeavours to calm both fears. If there is no change in the distribution of seats, there will be no necessity for a dissolution, as every place to be represented will be already represented; and every representative of a small borough will have the opportunity of going once more to the locality which he knows, and loves, and pays so well.

If all the small boroughs are to be left untouched, what is to be the change in the franchise which shall ensure the admission of working-men as a class to a voice in the representation? Mr. BRIGHT will take nothing short of a 6*l.* rental in boroughs and 10*l.* in counties. A 6*l.* rent is, he says, equivalent to a 5*l.* rating, and it is a matter of indifference which qualification is selected. For his own part, he would think it better to have household suffrage than either, and, as Mr. HENLEY said some months ago, that is the only qualification short of universal suffrage that has a show of finality about it. But if the Ministry does not like the sound of household suffrage, it can take a 6*l.* rental in boroughs and a 10*l.* rental in counties. So far, he contends, they must go, in order merely to keep up with Ministries that have preceded them. The Ministry of Lord ABERDEEN proposed a 5*l.* rating as the standard of the franchise in boroughs, and the Ministry of Lord DERBY proposed that a 10*l.* occupation should give a vote in counties. This would exclude none from the franchise except the agricultural poor; and the only check to the preponderance of the labouring class in the large towns would be the existence of small towns, where the labouring class would be invited to take their share of the good things that might be floating about. There can be no doubt that Mr. BRIGHT is right when he says that there must be a great display of energy on the part of the Ministry if such a Bill is to be carried. Unluckily, the Ministers are not at all inclined, if we may believe the intimations of their organs, to make the display of energy which their taskmaster exacts from them. A 6*l.* rating in boroughs, and a 20*l.* rental in counties—which, according to the *Times*, are to constitute the two points of the new Charter—would by no means come up to Mr. BRIGHT's mark, and would only earn for their authors his contemptuous disapprobation. It remains to be seen whether Lord RUSSELL and his colleagues will ultimately persist in a decision which cannot fail to disappoint and dissatisfy their very formidable supporter. In any case, a Reform Bill will not be carried at all unless the Ministry is thoroughly determined to carry it, and has confidence in itself, and commands the implicit obedience of its supporters. But the Ministry is not strong, and perhaps appears to be even weaker than it really is. Lord RUSSELL, as Mr. BRIGHT pointed out, made a very great mistake in asking Lord STANLEY to join the Ministry, for a party must be in a very poor way when, with a majority of sixty in the Commons, it cannot make up a Cabinet out of its own ranks, and is obliged to seek to win over a leader of the Opposition. The elevation of Sir JOHN RUSSELL to the peerage is one of those blunders which recall the weaker parts of Lord RUSSELL's career, and make men ask why one of the least successful of the Equity Judges should be made a Law Lord because he happens to be distantly connected with the PREMIER. It is difficult to say how the impression has been produced, but the impression certainly exists, that the Government, though well-meaning, is weak, and is likely to make a number of small mistakes. It is not wonderful, therefore, that Mr. BRIGHT gives Ministers a serious lecture, and exhorts them to wake up and show what they can do. Certainly, if they do what he asks them to do, and

pass the Reform Bill he advises, they will make it evident that they have plenty of courage and firmness; and if it should turn out that what they do is a mistake, no one will ever say that the mistake was a small one.

#### AMERICA.

THE process of Southern reconstruction, and the impediments by which it is delayed, offer a curious and instructive study to political inquirers. The conflict of powers which discloses itself in the course of the struggle is even more interesting than the immediate result. The authors of the Constitution probably intended to endow Congress with the principal part of the rights and functions of an English Parliament, but at the same time they conferred on the President an independent position which has never belonged to a Constitutional Minister. As the character of the Senate and of the House of Representatives has steadily degenerated under a system of promiscuous suffrage, the discussions of Congress have exercised less and less influence on general opinion or on public policy. The principal newspapers scarcely report the speeches, which are rather political monologues or addresses to constituents than portions of debates. Federal legislation was formerly seldom required except on the proposed admission of a new Territory or State, and the main financial difficulty consisted in the disposal of a surplus revenue. The war added to the importance of Congress by giving prominence to questions of taxation, and, if the occasion produced no display of financial ability, a ready acquiescence in all the schemes of the Government for providing money as well as men was perhaps prudent and patriotic. The political measures of the Thirty-seventh and Thirty-eighth Congresses were distinguished by an open disregard to the sovereign authority of the Constitution. The creation of a new State within the limits of Virginia, and the imposition of tests, were deliberate acts of usurpation; but neither measure tended to any practical result, and the constituencies probably approved of any mode of expressing the prevalent hostility to the South. The Thirty-ninth Congress, which has assembled for its first Session, has an unusually favourable opportunity for displaying its competence, and for trying how far its powers extend. No balance of parties paralyses the vigour of either House, for the Republicans command an irresistible majority, and within their own ranks the Radical section exercises a similar preponderance. Mr. SUMNER, as leader of the majority in the Senate, and Mr. THADDEUS STEVENS, who holds a corresponding position in the House, have openly disapproved of the PRESIDENT's Message, and especially of the readmission to the Union at the present time of the conquered Southern States. Experience will soon prove whether the opposition of Congress can even interrupt Executive action. If a direct collision were unavoidable, the PRESIDENT might adopt the language of JUPITER in the *Iliad*, when he defies the mutinous Parliament of Olympus to try its collective strength against his own. Probably, however, his object will be still more easily attained by the adhesion of a section of the Republican party to the policy of the Government. In the present struggle the PRESIDENT has the advantage of being obviously in the right, and almost all the measures which he considers as expedient lie within the compass of his constitutional prerogative. Mr. STEVENS may, if he can keep his majority together, reserve the House of Representatives for the exclusive occupation of Northern members. *Ille se jactet in aula*. With the internal government of the Southern States Congress has no power of interfering, except with the consent, and through the agency, of the PRESIDENT.

Mr. SUMNER has denounced as "a whitewashing Message" a communication of the PRESIDENT to the Senate, in which the conduct and feelings of the South are described as on the whole satisfactory. Although the phrase was resented by the supporters of the Government, it might perhaps have been accepted as an involuntary compliment. It is the act of statesmen to whitewash or obliterate the traces of secession and civil war. When the Southern States ask to return to their allegiance, inquiries into the sincerity of their repentance are inopportune and vexatious. The extreme Radical party were the first promoters of secession in theory, and they now seem inclined to claim a patent right in their own invention. Mr. SUMNER—though he is, as usual, factious, revengeful, and intemperate—falls far short of his principal ally in the House of Representatives. If Mr. THADDEUS STEVENS expressed the prevailing opinion of the Northern population, the abortive attempt to throw off the yoke of an alien majority would receive the fullest retrospective justification.



The love of demagogues for despotism, and of philanthropists for oppression of their equals, has never been more candidly avowed or more forcibly illustrated. Mr. STEVENS regards the defeated States precisely as Prince SCHWARTZENBERG regarded Hungary after the Austrian victory in 1849. The ancient Kingdom was claimed, by simple right of conquest, as the absolute property of the EMPEROR. The Constitution had disappeared; the Pragmatic Sanction was extinct; and all the inhabitants of Hungary held their lives and their property at the arbitrary pleasure of the Crown. The tyrant's title of force was not asserted by the Austrian Minister with more shameless unreserve than by the Republican leader of the American House of Representatives. Mr. STEVENS doubts only whether the Southern States are conquered Territories, or "dead carcasses lying within the Union." "Dead men cannot raise themselves; dead States cannot restore their own existence as it was." He proposes, however, that Congress shall restore a partial life, by organizing Territorial Governments in the States, "as there are no symptoms that the people of these provinces will be prepared to participate in a constitutional Government for some years." . . . "These can learn the principles of freedom, and eat the fruit of foul rebellion, under such Governments." . . . "As to these famed rebels, they cannot at their option re-enter the heaven they have disturbed, nor the garden of Eden which they have deserted, as flaming swords are set at the gates to secure their exclusion." The benighted foreigner is tempted to reflect that it would not be worth while to face any illegal test, or any other kind of flaming sword, for the sake of entering a garden of Eden or a heaven in which rhetoricians like Mr. STEVENS are representative angels. Not contented with the continuance of Southern disfranchisement, Mr. STEVENS declares that it is necessary to secure the perpetual ascendancy of the Republican party. He fears that, unless negro suffrage is conceded, "the Copperheads and the Secessionists" may probably obtain a majority. The Copperheads, commonly called the Democrats, ruled the United States for forty years, and they often displayed a blameable indifference to the rights of their opponents. The Republican demands of absolute supremacy prove that factions have short memories, and still more limited forethought. The peroration of Mr. STEVENS's speech is perhaps unrivalled in the records of even American eloquence. "Sir, this doctrine of 'a white man's Government is as atrocious as the infamous sentiment that damned the late Chief Justice to everlasting fame, and, I fear, to everlasting fire.' Piety, benevolence, good sense and good taste, are equally conspicuous in the authorized manifesto of the ultra-Republican party. Mr. STEVENS, however, is determined to prove that his language is scarcely more extravagant than his acts; for he has introduced a Bill to double all the pensions arising from the war, and to pay the expense by confiscation of Southern property. To incur expenditure for the express purpose of covering it by penal exactions is an original mode of persecution.

While the dominant faction in Congress indulges in impotent vociferation, the PRESIDENT, conscious that all real power is in his own hands, steadily persists in the restoration of the Southern States to the Union. He has sent to the Senate an official letter in which General GRANT urges the withdrawal of negro troops from the interior of the South, on the ground of the encouragement which their presence affords to idle freedmen, and on account of the risk of collision with white citizens. General GRANT also reports that the Freedmen's Bureau has in many cases operated injuriously; and he recommends that the business should henceforth be placed under the control of the military officers. The adoption of his recommendations will not require the assent of Congress, but possibly the PRESIDENT may be influenced by the opposite advice of General HOWARD, who urges the continuance of the present system. The challenge of the Radical party has been formally accepted by the restoration of Georgia, Alabama, and South Carolina to all their constitutional rights, with the unavoidable exception of representation in Congress. The Provisional Governors have been recalled, the elected Governors have been recognised by the PRESIDENT, and the Legislatures of all three States are now discharging their regular functions. The flaming swords, therefore, only protect a side wicket which leads to a single spot in the constitutional garden of Eden. If the Radicals hoped that the States, although they are internally reorganised, can be prevented from taking their place in the Union, they have been not less signally disappointed. Mr. STEVENS declared that it was of vital importance that none of the rebel States should be counted in the votes for the Amendment to the Constitution. "I take no account

"of the aggregations of whitewashed rebels, who without any legal authority have assembled in the capitals of the late rebel States, and simulated legislative bodies." The Amendment adopted by the last Congress required a majority of two-thirds of the State Legislatures, and the necessary support had not been received in the so-called loyal States. Mr. JOHNSON has nevertheless directed Mr. SEWARD to issue the proper official announcement that the Amendment which prohibits slavery throughout the Union has now received the necessary sanction from twenty-seven enumerated States. Among the States recorded as voting, by their Legislatures, for the Amendment are North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana, and Tennessee. If the "aggregations of whitewashed rebels" have exceeded their powers, slavery is still legally valid in Kentucky, although Mr. STEVENS can establish his interpretation of the Constitution only by a decision of the Supreme Court. If Chief Justice CHASE were to determine, in conformity with Mr. STEVENS's opinion, that slavery has not been legally abolished, it would be an interesting question whether he would share with his predecessor, Chief Justice TANEY, the doom of everlasting fame and everlasting fire.

The Radical party seek to introduce a new Amendment into the Constitution, repealing the express negative of the right of Congress to impose export duties. As a principal object of the measure would be additional protection to Northern manufacturers, it is highly probable that the whole Republican party will support the proposal. If, however, the Amendment is pressed, the question of the competence of the Southern States will be once more raised, and it is scarcely probable that their Legislatures will voluntarily dispense with a chief security against the fiscal selfishness and partiality of the North. Although a knowledge of political economy is one of the rarest accomplishments in the United States, the dominant Protectionists are imprudent in provoking an inquiry which must ultimately end in their defeat. When ninety-nine hundredths of an intelligent community are personally interested in the prevalence of a demonstrably sound doctrine, their negligence ought to be carefully guarded against disturbance. American prejudice is strong, but the love of money is stronger; and the Western States would not, if they understood what they are doing, pay an enormous tribute to Pennsylvania and Massachusetts. An American Free Trade League in New York has already submitted an ominously reasonable petition to Congress, in which some of the most elementary truths of political economy are plainly stated. It would have been impossible to support rudimentary truths by original arguments; but it may be new information to the great body of American citizens that, when a Government levies duties for purposes of protection, "it does 'not tax; it robs.'" As might have been expected, the Free Trade Association is denounced as "the British League," but its members will scarcely be deterred from their purpose by an attack which must have been foreseen. It is difficult, however, to estimate the weight of the argument with the general community. The Americans are perhaps the only nation that ever, for several generations, habitually professed animosity to another. It is in vain that amiable Englishmen endeavour to persuade themselves that the general abuse of their country is an eccentric proof of inverted regard. Mr. KINNAIRD, who lately propounded this theory in a letter to his constituents, is sharply reproved by the *New York Times*, which is owned and edited by Mr. RAYMOND, now the acknowledged leader of the moderate Republicans. Mr. KINNAIRD is taxed with the incurable conceit common to all his countrymen, in failing to understand that the civilities which he received were merely personal to himself. As for England in general, "its injustice and perfidy" have lighted in the American heart the fire of inextinguishable hate. Whether shameless avowals of this kind are received with contemptuous incredulity or with more contemptuous belief, they tend to confirm the complacent conviction of national superiority to which ordinary Englishmen are blameably prone. A wise man nevertheless desires to understand American policy and institutions, and he absolutely declines to reciprocate either real or affected animosity.

#### THE FOREIGN RELATIONS OF AUSTRIA.

SO far as yet appears, things are going well with the Emperor of AUSTRIA in his great attempt to place his huge Empire on a new basis. There seems to be a probability that some scheme of Federation may be arranged which will preserve a central authority, and yet secure provincial independence. Bohemia and Galicia have followed in the

wake of Hungary, and have imbibed a new desire for an existence of their own under the Austrian Crown. Altogether it is calculated that two out of every three subjects of the EMPEROR are in favour of his present scheme of government. All the Germans are against it, for it shakes the traditional supremacy of Germany to its foundation; but all, or very nearly all, Austrian subjects who are not Germans see in it the dawn of a new era of importance, prosperity, and political life for them. There will, of course, be difficulties when the details of the Federal polity have to be arranged. The provinces must yield something, or the Empire is at an end. But in politics the spirit which animates the parties to a negotiation is the one element of primary significance; and if men meet, wishing to surmount difficulties, the probability is that the difficulties, whatever they may be, will be surmounted. In course of time, the central power of every Federation that does not fall to pieces grows stronger, and the members of the Austrian Federation will gradually defer more and more to a central authority if they are once inspired with a belief in the advantages of the Federation, and with a desire that it should exist and flourish. And if a federation of Austrian provinces is once formed, with a sufficient power of coherence, Austria will be altogether changed both within and without. The subjects of the EMPEROR will have a new political life, will take interest in new questions, will imbibe new thoughts, and form new plans for material progress; while the attitude of the Empire as a whole to the rest of Europe will also of necessity be altered. The EMPEROR, acting as the head of a Federation, relying on provinces possessed of local independence to support him, having to contend with popular jealousies and animosities, and being sometimes impelled by popular enthusiasm, cannot possibly stand in the same relation to Prussia, to France, and to Italy as an Emperor ruling over a variety of subject races by the sword, and relying on the ascendancy of Germans to control and overawe less civilized peoples. It may be worth while at this juncture, when the proposed Federation seems on the point of being formed, to consider what will be the probable position of Austria, in the new state of things, towards the three Powers with which she is chiefly concerned. With England and Russia she may expect to have little to do for some time to come; for England does not wish, and Russia cannot afford, to meddle with or control Austrian politics. But, at every turn of her policy, she must come in contact with France or Prussia or Italy; and the relation in which she stands to each of the three must, in a large measure, determine the relation in which she stands to the other two. Political prophesying in detail is always foolish, but if we could not speculate on probabilities in politics, we should have no means of providing for the future; and although we cannot tell the exact turn which things will take, yet there are certain general considerations which can scarcely guide us wrong if we ask what will be the consequences to Austria, in her relation with these three Powers, if her Empire becomes a Federal one.

It is scarcely possible that the change should not increase the power and predominance of Prussia. If the Germans are no longer the ruling race in Austria, the traditional reverence for the EMPEROR as the representative of the old German Empire will soon fade away. The minor States will inevitably look for maintenance and guidance to the only great Power that will be distinctly German; and even the difference of religion and hereditary antipathies will fail to keep the Southern Germans aloof from the head of Northern Germany. Some day, possibly, the small States may be absorbed in Prussia; but, long before this can take place, Prussia will determine the policy and command the resources of States which must have some head if they are to avoid extinction, and can find none unless they look for what they want at Berlin. Bavaria and Saxony have already given Austria to understand that, as they find her powerless to help them, they cannot identify themselves with her, and must consult what they consider to be their own peculiar interests. Hanover still holds out, but the Italian Government announces its persuasion that Hanover will soon be brought to reason, and there can be no foundation for this persuasion except in the conviction that Hanover must sooner or later do as Prussia wishes. If it were Austria that wished Hanover to yield, and Prussia that counselled Hanover to be firm, the Italians would be much less confident of overcoming Hanoverian stubbornness. On the other hand, in proportion as Austria loses her hold on Germany she will be likely to become more closely allied with France. There are many bonds of union between the two Powers, which will be drawn closer if Austria has less to do

with Western Europe, and more to do with Eastern Europe; and there can be little doubt that this is the direction in which she will be drawn if a Federation is established. Already the questions most keenly agitated are the position of Transylvania in the future Constitution of Hungary, and the concessions to be made to the wishes of Croats and Serbs and Illyrians. The Hungarians will be the leaders in the Federation, at any rate at first, and until they have shown themselves incompetent to lead; and what Hungarians care about is, not the Rhine frontier, and the exasperating independence of the Senate of Frankfort, but the best mode of gaining easy access to the Adriatic, and how to direct and control the nations that lie on either border of the Danube. And in those darkened regions religion is not so much a creed as a political manifesto. Just as, in times still recent, an Englishman and a Frenchman hated each other on geographical grounds, and because they lived on different sides of the Channel, so these enthusiastic barbarians hate each other because they are or are not schismatics, or Greeks, or United Greeks, or Catholics, or Unionists, or whatever they ought or ought not to be. To hold the position of a leading Catholic Power is to command the obedience of thousands of zealots, who prefer orthodoxy to everything except plunder. And in the East the two Catholic Powers have every motive to work together. If the centre of Austrian policy is transferred from Vienna to Pesth, France can lend Austria assistance far more valuable than any other Power could do, for she can work towards the same general end, and yet can afford to let Austria quietly enjoy such advantages as increased territory or new dependencies can give her. The interminable Eastern Question will enter on a new phase on the day when the Emperor of AUSTRIA is crowned King of HUNGARY, for before long Turkey is sure to feel the consequences, and French influence in Turkey will be directed towards promoting a new combination. A Catholic Power contiguous to Turkey will begin to look eastward, and not westward, and the policy which this Power will be inclined to pursue will exactly fall in with the views of the greatest and most warlike of Continental despotisms.

Whether Italy would benefit or lose by the change is more uncertain. On the one hand, there are some reasons which may induce us to think that she would lose; that is, she would be less likely to recover Venice than if Austria and Hungary were not reconciled. The resources that Hungary, if earnest in the support of Austria, could place at the disposal of the EMPEROR are much greater than the resources which the EMPEROR can extract from Hungary by force. It must be easier for Italy to fight Austria while Hungary is dissatisfied than to fight her when Hungary has become sincerely desirous that all the enemies of Austria should be crushed. And further, if there is any zeal for the Federation, each member will become very anxious that every other member should be compelled, at all hazards, to remain in the Federation, and Hungary may learn to insist on Venetia remaining Austrian, not because she cares for the mere possession of Venetia, but because it will seem doubtful whether Galicia and other partially disaffected provinces can be kept in the Federation if Venetia is allowed to secede on the ground of not wishing to have anything to do with Austria. On the other hand, there are reasons why it may be thought that Italy is likely to gain if a Federal Government is established in Austria. In the first place, the contest between Austria and Italy has always been a German contest. Austria has maintained German supremacy, and Italy has resisted German domination. The less exclusively German, therefore, Austria becomes, the less the national pride will be concerned in maintaining the occupation of Venetia as a symbol of German ascendancy. It may be said, too, that although the Austrian Federation would be more powerful than the old Austrian absolute Empire, if all its members were perfectly harmonious, there is always a possibility that before the Federation has gained any hold on popular affection, and has given proof of its value, it may be the source of quarrels and divisions which for the time will weaken, rather than strengthen, Austria. The more, too, that Austria is bound up with France, and gives a ready ear to French suggestions, the more likely is she to let France realize the project of the Emperor of the FRENCH, when he announced that Italy should be free from the Alps to the Adriatic. And if Austria is penetrated with the views of Hungary, and learns to look upon her Eastern confines as the door to political aggrandizement, the importance attached to Venetia will grow less, and the readiness to accept some compensation in the region of the Danube and its confluents will become greater. Altogether, therefore, the balance of probabilities may incline to the supposition that



Italy has more to hope than to fear from the successful issue of the present negotiations between the Emperor of AUSTRIA and the Diet of his principal province.

#### THE BRIBERY OF THE RICH AND THE POOR.

LORD RUSSELL has commenced his reign in true regal fashion, with abundant largess. A shower of baronetcies, crosses, and peerages is descending upon the heads of those who have served him politically in past time, or towards whom he feels the warmer glow of anticipatory gratitude. He does not seem to have imagined that any exception could be taken to the motives with which he has distributed his favours. As sole turncock of the fountain of honour, he appears to believe that he is at liberty to direct its grateful stream into whatever channel will produce most return to himself. His discretion in that respect is scarcely contested. A slight remonstrance has, indeed, been called forth by the elevation of the new Law Lord, who has just been invested with the power of reversing the decisions of those who for so long a time have been reversing his. There is a material inconvenience to suitors, and a certain amount of discomfort to counsel, in an incompetent judge; and therefore Lord RUSSELL's regard for those of his own household meets, in this case, with a resistance which would never have been offered to the disposal of a mere honour. But crosses and baronetcies are baubles with which public opinion does not interfere. The ecstasy of the recipient of them can be better imagined than described; but his joys are for himself alone. Except the tailor who has to make new clothes for the Grand Cross, and the printer who has to print new cards for the baronet, no one else shares in any degree their bliss, or is incommoded by their grandeur.

Perhaps, if these honours were more thought of, the motives on which they are bestowed would be scrutinized more narrowly, and the fact might be recognised more generally than it is, that we are approximating to the United States in the conduct of elections in other ways besides the reduction of the suffrage. The elections are, to a considerable extent, turned by money and by territorial influence, and the philanthropic and religious world stands aghast at the enormity of the corruption which is thus exhibited. But it is curious that the students of our political mechanism should so seldom have traced its action one step further back, and asked themselves what it is that influences the influencers. The amount of money which changes hands at an election is so large that people who are not conversant with such matters reject the sums named as incredible. A willingness to expend such sums argues the existence of an enormous quantity of spare capital in the country. But the singular circumstance is that far the largest proportion of this available capital is always found to be on the side of the Government of the day, no matter to what school of politics it may belong. Rumour usually points to large subscriptions made either by the Government candidate himself, or by wealthy persons connected with the constituencies, as the source of this abundance. The Parliament is elected, and the Government shows itself not ungrateful to the munificence of its supporters. The refreshing rain of titles and honours begin to fall, and a notable portion of it descends upon the heads of the members who have fought expensive contests and won them, or of proprietors who, in some similar conflict, have brought important aid, pecuniary or territorial, to the side of the dominant party. Baronetcies are distributed among respectable gentlemen wholly innocent of any public service, and if any inquisitive person should ask the reason, he finds that the winning of a costly county seat was the consideration given. Vacant lord-lieutenancies, in the same way, reward the fidelity of Whig or Tory peers whose tenants have voted for the right man, and whose names have stood high upon the election subscription lists. With less notoriety, but with equal discrimination, the LORD CHANCELLOR, in drawing up commissions of the peace, awards due recognition to political merit of a humbler kind; and the respectable drapers and grocers who in a disinterested manner have put themselves on the committee of the member whose party is most likely to win, are entrusted with the administration of the law which they have shown themselves so qualified to appreciate.

There is no ground for contending that appointments made in this way are more likely to be ill bestowed than those made upon any other principle. The merits of a candidate for any honour or office must always be taken by the patron so much upon trust, and the selections, therefore, must be so much a matter of chance, that efficiency will always depend more upon the general character of the people than upon the

principle on which the choice is made. Stout politicians may make unexceptionable magistrates. The duties of a Lord-Lieutenant, which principally consist in acting as corresponding clerk to the War Office, can be performed by a pliant partisan as well as by anybody else. And whenever the proper qualifications of a baronet shall have been discovered, we do not doubt that they will be found to attach in full measure to successful candidates upon the Government side. It is rather the political system which these appointments represent than their own intrinsic fitness or unfitness that suggests uneasy reflections. What is bribery if these appointments are not? The definition of bribery is the bestowal of personal advantage as a consideration for the exercise of political power in a particular way; and of all forms of bribery that which is, by common consent, accounted the most pernicious is the employment of political patronage for such a purpose. The rewards by which the support of the higher class of voters or candidates is obtained tallies exactly with the definition. In their case, mere money has often ceased to be an object to them. The only thing left for them to wish for is some badge that will give them a higher social position; and political support of the winning party is the investment from which this return can be obtained. It is a regular part of our Parliamentary system, as old as the existence of Parliamentary government among us. So fully acknowledged is the necessity of some such practice to give strength to the Executive, that, except in cases where the connection between the service and the reward is displayed with indecent nakedness, it scarcely excites censure or even comment. The thing is done by all parties alike in turn. No one is thought the worse of who earns honours in this way; nor does their value, whatever it may be, appear to be lessened by their origin. All this would be very well if we were consistent in the application of our tolerant philosophy. No form of government has ever yet existed in the world which has been able to sustain itself without the aid of practices incompatible with the highest ideal of public virtue. But it is well that those who are afflicted by this form of political frailty, and who benefit by the toleration extended to it, should not conspicuously devote themselves to the task of insisting upon the necessity of public virtue in other people. That garters, crosses, peerages, lord-lieutenancies, baronetcies, magistracies, should be used for the purpose of obtaining political support, and sustaining a Government in power, may be inevitable. But the class of men who habitually pocket these trinkets as rewards for partisanship is not the class to lecture those who take their reward for partisanship in the shape of a five-pound note.

At the beginning of every Parliament, a formidable outburst of indignation against bribery bursts upon Mr. SPEAKER'S ears. The floodgates of public virtue are opened; and the whole race of freemen and potwallopers are overwhelmed in a torrent of high-souled denunciation. The misfortune is, that most of the gentlemen who utter these impressive sentiments have either themselves received the reward of their political exertions in the coin which they prefer, or else they have been elected by the efforts of others who have done so. Nor is this the worst of the case. It would matter less if their peccadilloes were of a nature to be easily concealed. ANGELO might have continued to be a very effective judge if only he could have kept ISABELLA in the background. Unhappily, the meaning of the various honours and dignities which are just now descending like balmy dew upon Whig souls is perfectly understood by the censorious multitude. They are sufficiently discerning to infer that it is not by a pure coincidence that the active electioneerer has become a baronet or a lord-lieutenant. And, in their coarse way of reasoning, they argue that there is no great difference between a dignity given to a rich man who does not care for money, and money given to a poor man who does not care for dignities. It is not probable, therefore, that the homilies they receive upon the subject of bribery from the magistrate whose honours followed a contested election in which he took a leading part, or from the judge who received his appointment just after a critical division in which he voted right, will produce any lasting impression upon their hardened hearts. Perhaps, however, the contrast has even a worse effect than that of neutralizing sermons upon bribery. The first object of hypocrisy is to make vice look like virtue; but its ultimate result very commonly is to make virtue look like vice. If the audience discover that one kind of exhortation is a mere cover for the practice against which it is directed, they will be apt to make light of all professions of virtue coming from the same source. Some time ago, Mr. MAURICE promised us that a voice issuing from the deep heart of the nation was to put a stop to money bribery at elections. Judging by the

tales which rumour tells, that mysterious organ, the deep heart of the nation, will have to issue a good many more voices before it will make any progress in its task. But if Mr. MAURICE would begin with the bribery of DIVES, and follow that out into all its ramifications, he would perhaps better understand the difficulty which the deep heart of the nation has hitherto found in touching the moral sense of LAZARUS upon this subject. When Ministries cease to purchase Tory squires and Whig tradesmen, it is possible that candidates may be induced to give up the traffic in freemen and ten-pound householders.

#### SPAIN.

SPANISH Ministers, in composing speeches to be delivered from the throne, follow English precedents. While the Emperor of the FRENCH is epigrammatic, the American President argumentative, constitutional Kings or Queens find it convenient to address their Parliaments in strictly formal language. The rule which cautious persons adopt in private conversation, of telling nothing which is not already known, is still more applicable to a mode of communication which is not intended to raise a debate. Statements of notorious facts, accompanied if necessary by unmeaning explanations, are better adapted than original suggestions to the object of securing loyal unanimity of assent. The Queen of SPAIN informs the Cortes that although she has, for reasons of State, recognised the Kingdom of Italy, she is more than ever determined to protect the rights and interests of the HOLY FATHER, who attempted in vain to prevent the tardy acknowledgment of an undoubted fact. The intentions of the Government with respect to the Chilian quarrel were awaited with stronger curiosity, which may perhaps be hereafter gratified. It was proper that the QUEEN should refer only to the necessity of protecting Spanish honour, while she disclaimed any wrongful purpose of aggression. Of the finances, it was only possible to say that good economy and sound administration should be applied to the most confused branch of public affairs. Newsmongers in search of excitement had vainly hoped that the appearance of the QUEEN in her capital would be the signal of a revolution, or, at the worst, of an interesting riot; but the result proved that in Madrid, as in other places, the gossip of discontent seldom embodies itself in action. The subsequent military disturbances which have arisen, though they may reasonably cause uneasiness, are officially declared to be without political importance. Foreigners have little concern with the reasons which may induce Spaniards to complain among themselves either of Royal seclusion or of the amusements by which its tediousness may be relieved. A proud nation dislikes the intrusion of strangers into domestic grievances, and even a partial experience of constitutional freedom tends to diminish the public importance of palace intrigues or scandals. In a limited monarchy, a good king exercises valuable influence, and a bad or useless king does comparatively little harm. A change of dynasty is a confession of the incapacity of a nation to protect its own liberties by ordinary means. The French unsettled the foundations of their Parliamentary constitution when they dethroned CHARLES X., and the fabric finally collapsed with the capricious ejection of LOUIS PHILIPPE. The dethronement of the male line of the BOURBONS cost the Spaniards several years of civil war, and they would deserve a renewal of anarchy if they wantonly converted a reigning sovereign into an injured Pretender. If the Crown were left without an heir, there might be some advantage in uniting the Peninsula into a single monarchy by the election, in default of any hereditary claim, of the King of PORTUGAL. For the present, the friendly reception in Madrid of a Royal visitor possesses no political significance. It is, however, not impossible that, in course of time, the House of BRAGANZA may, like the House of STUART, be recommended to the favour of a larger body of subjects by the possession of a desired inheritance.

The Spanish Minister of Finance is said to possess considerable ability, but he has already thought it expedient to disclaim any purpose of paying or recognising the outstanding debt. As usual, there are rumours of some circuitous contrivance by which a Company is to receive railway concessions from the Government, with an understanding that it is to make some secret arrangement with the foreign bondholders. It is the disgrace, rather than the expense, of paying an undoubted debt, which has always been repugnant to Spanish delicacy. If the creditors could be privately satisfied without compromise of the national pride in insolvency, public opinion would probably not revolt

against an expedient which would open foreign money-markets to the Spanish Treasury. It is not, however, on the power of borrowing during a time of peace that the prosperity of any country can really depend. A thoroughly vicious commercial system is in itself a mine of untouched wealth. A hoard of treasure is, indeed, useless as long as it is retained; but it may be at any time put in circulation. A reduction of the protective or prohibitory tariff of Spain would be followed by an influx of wealth as certainly as the removal of a flood-gate makes room for the flow of accumulated water. The rapid progress of the country during the last twenty years has been caused by the cultivation of barren lands, and it has been facilitated by the establishment of order and security. A similar impulse would be given to foreign trade, and therefore to home production, by the abolition of the obsolete navigation laws, and by the introduction of a reasonable system of Customs. There must be economists in Spain who understand the folly of discouraging commercial intercourse with foreign countries for the exclusive advantage of a few sickly manufactures. Spain is a land flowing with corn, wine, and oil; and on the other side of the Bay of Biscay lies the richest country in the world, which however possesses neither vines nor olives, and which grows only half the wheat which it consumes. If the Spaniards chose to receive payment in manufactured goods, they might double their exports to England, and a liberal tariff would proportionally increase their trade with every other part of the world. The expansion of public prosperity would render loans unnecessary, and it would remove all financial difficulties.

It is probable that Spanish statesmen, although they may shrink from unpopular reforms, are theoretically in advance of their countrymen. All liberal and enlightened measures have a natural connection with one another, and Marshal O'DONNELL has introduced more than one beneficial innovation. The repudiation of the political supremacy of Rome, which was involved in the recognition of Italy, has been followed by the Royal decree for the suppression of the slave-trade on the coast of Cuba. It is perhaps still more remarkable that the policy of the Minister has been seconded or anticipated by a faint commencement of popular or independent opposition to slavery. The absurd telegraphic dispatch which M. CHAMEROVZOW read, a few weeks ago, at Exeter Hall, was not a mere fiction of the silly correspondent who announced "the first tears shed in Spain for the negro." It would have been more to the purpose to state that the first speeches against slavery had been made at a meeting of a society which includes in the list of its members the respectable name of Señor OLOZAGA. It is immaterial to inquire whether the embryo Exeter Hall of Madrid owes its origin to some political organization. The trade of philanthropy can never flourish where there is no sincere benevolence to support and encourage professional agitation. The tears of Spain will not be profusely shed for the sufferings of the slave; but the profession of a desire to interfere with the system is an interesting novelty. Although there are sound reasons for dealing, in the first instance, with the scandal of the slave-trade, the abolition of slavery in Cuba will be a necessary result of the great social change which is already effected on the adjacent continent.

Mr. BRIGHT has informed his constituents, on the authority of Lord CLARENDON, that the good offices of England and France have been cordially accepted at Madrid; and there is, therefore, reason to hope for an early termination of the war with Chili. The Spanish Government has probably become convinced of its error in adopting a policy which has never been satisfactorily explained. The quarrel with Chili appears to have been a corollary from the recent dispute with Peru, which was apparently settled twelve months ago. Since that time, however, the Peruvians have had their twentieth or thirtieth civil war, ending in the glorious triumph of the patriots who conducted the revolution. For want of a better pretext, the enemies of the previous Government professed especial hostility to Spain, and it was not impossible that when they succeeded to power they might think it necessary to prove their sincerity by some demonstration of ill-will. It is asserted that Admiral PAREJA contrived a rupture with Chili, in preparation for a second war with Peru; and yet it is difficult to understand how an addition to the number of enemies could facilitate the operations of Spain. The complications and vicissitudes of South American politics are, however, too inexplicable to admit of political calculation. Since the victorious establishment of a patriotic Government in Peru, the new President has been superseded by the still more patriotic General of his army. It would be much cheaper to bribe South American Presidents than to blockade or bombard



their ports. It is highly probable that the Spanish Government may receive some provocation from Peruvian authorities, but there is nothing to be got by a South American war. Chili is a more respectable State than Peru, though the Chilean Consul at New York lately had the folly to offend the French Government by giving an ostentatious entertainment to the Minister of the exiled Mexican Republic. The Chilean Government will not fail to understand the necessity of showing proper deference to the two great Powers which have interfered for the purpose of settling a barren dispute. It may be doubted whether the States of South America are likely to approve of the MONROE doctrine, or, in other words, of their own perpetual and exclusive dependence on the pleasure of the United States. A weak Government makes some approach to independence when it is enabled to choose among rival patrons. It might be worth while to invoke American protection against a serious design of Spanish conquest, but the good offices of France and England, if they are sufficient for the immediate purpose, impose a less onerous obligation. The blockade of Valparaiso seems hitherto to have been innocuous except to foreign merchants. It is said that fifty-four ports on the coast of Chili are still open, though it may be presumed that the catalogue includes many insignificant fishing stations. The stoppage of commerce at Valparaiso has suggested to the Chilean Government the expediency of making roads to some of the nearer harbours which are unaffected by the blockade; and it is, therefore, not impossible that permanent good may be educed from temporary and tolerable evil. The English importation of jute began with the interruption of the supply of hemp during the Russian war, and a few dozen miles of good road along the coast of Chili would ultimately pay the expenses of the quarrel with Spain. English copper-founders may reasonably hope that their business will, in a short time, be no longer interrupted by the consequences of a dispute which no foreigner has yet succeeded in understanding.

#### FINANCE, PAST AND FUTURE.

THE financial history of the year which has just passed away has been supposed to bear a strong resemblance to that of its immediate predecessor. The likeness is almost imaginary, and fades away on the slightest examination. It is true that a fall in Consols and a rise in the rate of discount marked the closing periods both of 1864 and 1865, notwithstanding revenue returns of the most satisfactory kind. In both years, moreover, speculation was active, and even more so in 1864 than in 1865. But the leading events which have controlled the past, and now threaten to influence the future, are as nearly as may be the very opposite of those which operated a year ago. The character of 1864 and the prospects of 1865 were determined mainly by the American war in its various indirect relations. The past year has already been largely influenced in financial matters by the American peace, and the tone of that which has just commenced will probably be taken from the same source. In 1864, the vast expenditure upon cotton, the fluctuations which followed successive rumours of peace or victory, and the uneasy feeling which resulted during the autumn months, were the principal drawbacks to what was otherwise a period of vigorous trade and political quiet. Now, the one fact that overshadows every other consideration (not even excepting the cattle murrain and the approaching Reform Bill) is the resumption of trade consequent on the close of the American civil war. If we look at the returns of the Board of Trade, we find the enormous increase of 3,500,000*l.* reported for the month of November, and this is only part of a continuous movement. The exports of cotton-yarn and goods were 50 per cent. in excess of the corresponding period of the previous year. Woollen manufactures have been shipped at least as largely, and there is scarcely a commodity which does not share in the general increase. Upon the whole, the rate of increase is about 30 per cent., and by far the greater part of this extraordinary activity is caused by the vast importations of the United States since the establishment of peace. A phenomenon most important to be considered side by side with this is the comparative smallness of our imports from America. Cotton has come, but not at all in the quantities that had once been looked for; there has been no great demand for American grain; and almost all other commodities are dearer in America than here, and of course remain where they are. In return, therefore, for vast shipments of goods, we are now getting American obligations, partly in the shape of Government bonds and other securities, partly in the ledgers of our merchants. This is the great process which has been going on during the latter part of the year.

The other chief financial operations have consisted in the supply of about an average amount of money to foreign States of indifferent solvency, and the absorption of more capital than enough in the formation of Limited Companies. Most active and most dangerous of these are the financial Companies, which not only draw largely on the public for their own support, but keep up the game of speculation by adroit manipulation of stocks and shares, and by well-organized efforts to give vitality to others not strong enough to come into existence without purchasing the support of one of the great Companies. While enormous profits continue to be announced, there is little prospect of a check to these enterprises, and shareholders do not always remember that profits even of 30 or 40 per cent. are little more than nominal when they depend on the estimated price of a mass of shares which it would be impossible to realize in any quantity without an immense depreciation of what are often imaginary and artificial values. The growth of internal speculation was fostered, in the summer months, by a great abundance of money; but the stimulus given to trade by the eagerness of American importers led to the absorption, during the autumn, of an unprecedented amount of currency for the purposes of domestic business. Gradually the supply of money fell off, and towards the end of the year a foreign drain, not yet of unmanageable extent, has contributed to deplete the cellars of the Bank, to reduce the price of Government securities, and to raise the rate of discount to a high, though not an alarming, level. Except during a short time before the cause of the autumn demand for money was fully appreciated, the fluctuations of the market have been unattended by any anxiety. Even promoters went on weaving their accustomed schemes, regardless of the Bank of England or the market price of Consols. Trade has suffered no check, and the returns of the revenue show a rapid increase, except, of course, in the items on which some millions of taxation were remitted during the year. The rinderpest has thrown a gloom over the later months of the year, but notwithstanding the extent of the actual loss, and the magnitude of the future danger, the financial influence of the calamity can scarcely yet be traced in any public shape. Altogether, the past year has been one of prosperity, fully up to any rational expectations which could have been entertained at its commencement.

The horoscope of a future year is always difficult to draw, and this year there are more than the ordinary elements of uncertainty. In modern times, no country has been able to save its own finances from the shock of great convulsions in other parts of the trading world. The commercial history of Great Britain especially includes, and depends upon, that of every other commercial nation. And there is no country whose influence is felt so soon as that of America—no time when that influence has threatened to be so important as in the next twelve months. More than two years ago, when the war was still raging with doubtful success, a very sagacious writer hazarded the following prediction as to the financial consequences of its termination:—"We may expect one of two things to happen. Either, though they [the Americans] may not have the immediate intention of improving their currency, the premiums on gold, through the abundant supply which the circumstances indicated will place at their disposal, will fall to such a degree as to hasten their action in spite of their indifference; or, what is quite as probable, the temptation will rather be to increase their imports than to improve their currency; a great inflation of prices and of trade in general will ensue; the inducement which a redundant circulation of paper money so often creates of importing to an unlimited extent will have its full effect; and foreign liabilities will then be created which will absorb that surplus of gold of which the situation described has given them the command. In the former case, American finance may possibly issue from its ordeal without a catastrophe; in the latter and more probable case, a terrible collapse will in the end be inevitable."

What has actually happened partakes of the nature of the two alternate hypotheses which Mr. GOSCHEN suggested in the passage we have cited. A genuine effort is being made by Mr. McCulloch, backed, as it now appears, by an almost unanimous vote of Congress, to redeem the surplus currency and restore a specie standard. The supply of gold expected from the export of cotton has come mainly from the export of securities, but the immediate effect of facilitating measures for the restoration of the currency is the same. Whether the American people will have the fortitude to endure the weight of taxation which this policy will require remains one of the problems which the year has to

solve; but at present they are clearly setting their faces in the right direction, and striving to choose the path which, as Mr. GOSCHEN says, "may possibly issue without a catastrophe." But, concurrently with this movement, the anticipated inflation has already made great progress, and we need not go further than to the Report of their own Financial Minister to find a just estimate of the dangerous character of the recent expansion of American trade. A circulation far in excess of the legitimate wants of commerce, in sober times, is absorbed by an amount of traffic far beyond anything which America has ever attempted before. It can scarcely be supposed that four years of a peculiarly destructive war, and an accumulated debt of 600,000,000*l.*, have left the United States financially stronger than they were before the first gun was fired at Fort Sumter. But unless they are so, the present violent energy of trade cannot continue without ending in the terrible collapse that Mr. GOSCHEN, in such an event, predicted. The question upon which the balance turns is, whether the sobering legislation recommended by Mr. McCulloch will come in time to check the excessive inflation of trade before the Rubicon is passed. After a certain period, there will be no way out of the difficulty but through a commercial crisis, and all who are concerned in American trade will no doubt watch the symptoms with anxiety, to see whether the most impulsive people on the face of the earth will for once be wise in time.

It is always well to look the possible worst fairly in the face before the day of trial comes, and, without depreciating the importance of not exciting premature alarm, the consequences of a possible American crisis may be usefully considered. One thing is quite certain, that the present tendency of trade is to pile up a large amount of indebtedness by America to this country. Against this may be set the fact that the close of the war left the then outstanding score in all probability much below what was its accustomed amount. Until this void is filled, therefore, the permanent relations between this country and America will not be more full of peril than they have been in former times; but if our exports go on much longer on the scale we have recently seen, without any corresponding amount of produce being imported in return, an extremely heavy amount of debt will accumulate against our American customers. We shall become, as a necessary consequence, more than ordinarily susceptible to influences from that side, and if a crash should come among our Transatlantic debtors many a solid house in England may totter to the ground. All these dangers may be averted if a little timely common sense should check the immense operations of American merchants; and even without that, if reasonable caution is shown on our side in limiting the extent of our American credits. It seems certain that, if a crisis is not averted, we shall not be in a peculiarly good position for meeting it. There have not been for years so many railway projects awaiting the decision of Parliament; the facilities for the formation of Limited Companies have added another large element to current speculation; an unprecedented trade already absorbs all the available capital of the country; and if any serious derangement of affairs should occur across the Atlantic, we should lose, for the time at any rate, and in a great measure without recovery, all the benefit of our investments in American trade. We are very far from saying that the gloomy possibilities we have indicated will ever become realities. The cloud is small as yet, and there is ample time to escape the deluge if it comes; nor is it impossible that, with the wonderful elasticity of a new and strong country, the United States may be able to dissipate all the evils which seem to be impending. Still, unless we are much mistaken, there is ground enough to justify and to require more than common caution in those upon whose commercial discretion the prosperity of the whole country depends. Emphatically it is not a time for reckless ventures or confiding credit, and we should not at all regret to see a somewhat less rapid progress in those monthly returns which of late have proclaimed nothing but apparent prosperity.

#### INTELLECTUAL PLEASURES.

A PHILOSOPHER who lived two thousand years ago, but whose writings have influenced the current of human thought ever since, does not hesitate to rank what may be vaguely called intellectual pleasure as the crown and summit of human happiness. Even the perfection of the moral character, in his idea, holds a somewhat subordinate place. Morality is the completeness of man, viewed as a strange compound of passion and of reason, of the purely animal and of the divine. But intellectual life is the genuine triumph and energy of mind itself, the life which man would enjoy if he were to become a god, and to be released from the temptations and wants incidental to his muddy vesture of decay.

The great rival who has divided with the philosopher in question the empire over the minds of men differed from him on almost every point where a difference could exist, but seems to have agreed with him in this. The noblest and best of all occupations, he thought, was that internal process of research and of inquiry which was to lead the philosopher towards the knowledge of truth in all its beauty and comeliness. This beatific vision, if we may so style it, has been ever since the goal towards which his innumerable followers, Pagan and Christian, have turned their eyes. The consequence of all this consent upon the subject has been to place intellectual pleasures on an elevation from which they never have descended. Even those who feel that truth itself, in the absolute sense of the term, is unattainable, have readily acknowledged that the highest form of human vitality is the activity of man's highest part, the mind. Every school of philosophy, whatever its method or aim, holds at all events to this axiom, and with good reason. For whether the chief end of thought be a hopeless attempt to break through the barrier of finite conditions and to land oneself on an imaginary *terra firma* of realities and infinities beyond, or to master the subtle secrets of phenomenal nature, or to arrive at fixed laws on social matters, or to work at the development of logic, or of mathematics, or theology, or history, the mind is the instrument with which everything is to be done. The world, therefore, is wise in bestowing its highest crown of praise on the labours of the mind, just as prizes of various descriptions are offered to those who give themselves successfully to such pursuits as benefit mankind the most. And one of the fashions in which the world keeps up thinkers to the mark is by repeating, by way of a chorus of congratulation and encouragement, that of all pleasures there is none that can compare with intellectual pleasures, and that these alone are pure and permanent. Ecclesiastes, indeed, is of a different opinion. He seems in the most ruthless manner to include all under the category of vanity, without any cheering exception in favour of mental energy. And there have been one or two gloomy observers who have shared his view. But the poets and writers of many centuries are very vehement in the opposite direction. Even the most sentimental of them, the most Byronic, and the most sceptical, fall back either on philosophy or on art, and tell us that in one or other of the two resides the true philosopher's stone which is to make life all gold. And it is, therefore, worth considering in what sense either Art or Thought can be said, in contradistinction to other enjoyments, to be "a joy for ever," and what is the exact quality of intellectual pleasures.

It is to be remarked that much of what is called intellectual pleasure turns out, upon examination, to be anything but purely intellectual. The sharp lines of definition which we are in the habit of drawing between the different parts of man do not of necessity exist anywhere except in our own notions. They are forms of thought, and that is all. From the earliest times it has been the fashion to assume that the differences in the various kinds of subject-matter with which man's senses and his intellect have to deal correspond to sharply defined faculties existing in him, and that each field of matter has a special part of him to do with it. This may or may not be true, but very little is known about it, and the inference is at present a more or less arbitrary one. Upon consideration, we should probably be inclined to admit that the distinction between moral pleasure and intellectual is not so much that the two differ in kind, as that the subjects which excite each are different, and that the pleasure excited in the one case differs in degree from the pleasure excited in the other. A great deal of so-called intellectual pleasure is, for example, simply sentimental. Let us take, for instance, the case of the homeless poor, or of a noble action, or of a woman who has been deceived and wronged. In real life these things awaken our sympathies in proportion to our individual sensibility, and the sympathy awakened is increased by our imagination, which, on such occasions, is wont to work up the fact into a highly coloured picture. Supposing, on the other hand, that an artist like Mr. Dickens puts upon paper a similar scene. The pleasure or pain with which we read it is caused by the power of imagination, to which the artist knows how to appeal forcibly; but this pleasure or pain does not differ in kind from the pleasure or pain with which we should view the everyday reality. Imagination plays a greater part in producing the pleasure or pain in the former case, but, when produced, the pleasure or pain is the same. It is a moral feeling, excepting always that small supplement of pleasure which may be set down to satisfaction at seeing a story told well. And there is this additional element in the feelings called into play by the artist, that they have a tendency to merge all pain in pleasure. A sad fiction would draw tears, only that we remember at the close that it is fiction after all; and we accordingly experience merely so much pain as is proportioned to the probability that the fiction may, after all, have its parallel in actual life. The same may be said, with considerable truth, of the feelings aroused by art. A large proportion of them are sentimental. Art appeals to the sentiment just as literature does, only some art—and music, in particular, is an instance to the point—appeals to sentiment vaguely and indistinctly, though, on the other hand, powerfully enough. Much, again, of the pleasure of art depends on the train of associations it summons up within us. This is even more evident when we come to investigate the pleasures of nature. More than half of the delight in beautiful scenery would vanish if man suddenly lost his memory, and his power of recalling old thoughts and old associations. Nobody, perhaps, ever enjoyed



nature more than Wordsworth, or has taught others better to enjoy it. It is quite remarkable how incessantly he makes the pleasures of nature to consist in some old recollection or association evoked by the sight of natural beauty. They do not, in his eyes, depend so much on what nature is, as on what nature suggests. And any of us who have felt these pleasures will probably be willing to allow that they become more vivid as our internal store of associations becomes richer, and as we gain in sympathy and in experience. Man does not get much out of a sunset, or a landscape, except what he carries with him. We draw, not upon the outer but the inner world, and the outer world only supplies an occasion or a key to internal emotion. The very young, as a rule, have no experience of the pleasure in question. This is not because nature is less beautiful when the young look at it, but because the young approach nature empty-handed, and, bringing little to her, get but little in return. The conclusion is obviously that all those pleasures which are popularly comprehended under the term intellectual are in reality moral and sentimental. This leads us to a further reflection that ought not to be overlooked. In proportion as we grow more capable of sentimental pleasures we also grow more liable and sensitive to sentimental pain. Great sentimentalists are not very happy persons. Increase of sympathy implies an increase of sympathy with the sorrows of life. If the human race were suddenly endowed with sympathies a hundred times as intense, it would occasionally feel keener satisfaction; but the gain would be more than counterbalanced by keener dissatisfaction, mortification, and regrets. If we only, therefore, regard the branch of intellectual pleasures which we have been discussing, we should be obliged to come reluctantly to the conclusion that Ecclesiastes is, after all, right, and that pleasures of this description, however noble and refined, are, after all, but vanity.

But there are other pleasures which may be considered more properly to be of an intellectual character. The investigation of truth is possibly one; but even here a distinction must be drawn. Philosophers, till modern times, have almost invariably spoken and written as if the only investigation of truth that was worth much belonged to the region of metaphysics. A hunt after realities, a fruitless struggle to grasp things as they are, in opposition to things as they are perceived by our senses, an effort to use logic and analysis as a means of discovering the mysteries of existence, was long understood to be the only occupation worthy of a philosophic mind. Metaphysics are still an intoxicating study to the one or two solitary survivors who can bring themselves to believe in them; and, as a study of the history of the human mind, they will always be an interesting field to every man of sense and education. But people are by this time pretty much agreed to regard transcendental philosophy as a dream, and to acknowledge that thought is limited by certain finite conditions, beyond which man cannot pass. To those who feel this strongly, every metaphysical system is a splendid edifice built by logical enthusiasts in mid air. Without some sort of begging of the question, no metaphysical theory can have a show of a foundation, and even the famous *cogito ergo sum* involves either a *petitio principii* or a *non sequitur*. It is true that the pleasures of logic and metaphysics are still considerable. But, in the opinion of modern thinkers, such pleasures are alloyed by the inseparable conviction that they are barren as far as all result is concerned, and that such seductive inquiries, if they are pursued in a spirit of remorseless logic, end in discomfiture and uncertainty after all. It is not, therefore, to metaphysics or to logic that we can look for unadulterated intellectual pleasure. These, too, according to the judgment of Ecclesiastes, may be said to be vanity. We may say of the whole subject what Bacon said of the study of final causes. The man, indeed, who is determined to believe in metaphysics may derive genuine delight from the idea that he is close upon the trail of the unconditioned; but he must make up his mind to be regarded by his intellectual brethren as an amiable and harmless enthusiast.

There remains, after all deductions, a practical field for the operations of the mind, in the inquiry into natural phenomena, and into all other subjects which are capable of bearing positive fruit. No better specimen of the kind of discovery which may be termed intellectual can be taken than the discovery, let us say, of the steam-engine, or of a new planet, or of the principle of gravitation, or of some other fact or law which can be utilized for the world's benefit or instruction. Here, therefore, if at all, we might expect intellectual pleasure to be found. It is clear that, if it resides anywhere, it resides either in the pursuit of the key to such problems, or in the act of solving them, or in the subsequent sensations after the solution. This is an exhaustive division, and under one of the three thimbles the pea must of necessity lie. The pleasure that succeeds the discovery can scarcely be held to be purely intellectual. Feelings of triumph and satisfaction are not intellectual though they may be called forth by an intellectual feat, and Newton's delight at having hit upon the explanation of the falling apple cannot be said to be different in kind from the delight of Columbus after he had caught sight of the distant landmarks of the New World. The same criticism applies to the act of discovery itself, which, of course, it must be remembered, is over in a moment. So long as it can be said to last, it involves the pleasurable sensation of reaching a long-looked-for goal, but it is not distinguishable from the satisfaction experienced when the goal has been attained. We are thus thrown back upon the intellectual pleasure which may belong to the process of inquiry apart from its results; and now at last the only rational meaning of intellectual pleasure begins to dawn upon us. It seems to consist in the

exercise of the mind, and may be compared in most respects to the healthy glow that we feel in the exercises of the body.

Fortunately for mankind, it appears to be the law of nature that the exercise of any of our faculties or organs, mental or bodily, should be productive of some pleasure. It is by these means that nature lures us on—if we may borrow the figurative language of those who give themselves to the discussion of final causes—to exercise the organs or faculties in question, without the employment of which the world would soon come to a standstill. If mental or bodily or moral energy were absolutely painful, or even considerably less pleasurable than it is, men would cease to be mentally or morally or physically energetic. This view, sound as it is, reduces intellectual pleasure to the same level as any other pleasure produced by the working of our vital powers, except so far as we can show that intellectual pleasure is more vivid or more permanent than the rest. More vivid for the time it certainly is not. There are many other kinds of pleasure which are at least as absorbing and as keen while they last. Which are the most permanent is a problem that admits possibly of discussion, and which depends upon the question, which of all our human organs or faculties are the most capable of protracted energy. Upon the first blush of it, it seems doubtful whether we are warranted in ranking purely intellectual pleasures in this respect above the pleasures, if not of sense, at any rate of sentiment. The truth perhaps is, that the most permanent pleasures of all are the pleasures which a man finds in such occupations as are of most benefit to mankind. Whether the occupation is moral, or social, or intellectual depends upon circumstances, and is scarcely a matter of *a priori* reasoning. The philanthropist might possibly in this matter hold his own against a philosopher. Intellectual energy and sentiment are both necessary to the progress of society, and as intellect enters into all our judgments, whether practical or theoretical, it has a right to claim the highest place of all. It is not, however, improbable that the high cultivation of intellect, as well as the high cultivation of sentiment, exposes man to the chance of keener pain, at the same time that it gives him the chance of enjoying keener pleasure.

#### LUCKY FRIENDS.

IF Rochefoucauld's celebrated maxim, that the misfortunes of our friends are never entirely disagreeable to us, be true, it is an obvious corollary that rare and peculiar good fortune on the part of the same friends is never wholly satisfactory to us. It is of no use complaining of the manifest cynicism of remarks of this kind. They are cynical inasmuch as they draw attention to a very ugly and unamiable side of human nature. The only question worth discussing is whether that ugly side exists. If it is all pure calumny, if the average of men are free from all taint and suspicion of selfishness and meanness, then to concoct terse epigrams which ascribe these qualities generally to mankind is doubtless a very unworthy occupation. It is highly probable that such epigrams would be far less frequent if they were utterly absurd and purposeless. And it is worth considering whether those who are for ever drawing sublime and angelic pictures of human nature, declaring as a great statesman recently did—and with about the same amount of sincerity and point—that they at least are on the side of the angels, are really so usefully and honourably employed as they would have us think. It may be very noble, and to some people very comforting, to dwell in a general way exclusively on the brighter qualities of the human heart; but the man whose wife has just bolted with his bosom friend may be excused if he maintains that there is a time for all things, and that a goody philosophy is not the thing for him at that particular moment. On the contrary, his temporary tastes lie exactly in the opposite direction. He wants a philosophy which, without being palpably untrue, shall represent human nature in a rather odious light. He is immovably convinced that it deserves to be so represented. It is true he is angry, and disposed to generalize, and to call "all" men knaves and traitors when he should have said only "some." But who can wonder at this under the circumstances? The two specimens of the human species with whom he was most nearly related, and in whom he placed most trust, have unscrupulously deceived and betrayed him. Go and talk amiable moonshine to him, and he cannot but think you either a fool or an impostor. He may be very unphilosophical, but so are you. He ignores one set of facts; you ignore another set. He says men are liars and humbugs; you simper out that this sweeping condemnation of mankind is quite dreadful, that no man is so bad as not to have some good in him, and that the good, the noble, the generous is what we should fix our eyes upon. He probably meets your sugary platitudes with a few trenchant epigrams which men of talent have made expressly to be used on occasions of this sort. The enunciation of these biting truths is a delicious relief to him. As Caligula wished for a humanity with one neck which he might luxuriously twist at his leisure, so the furious husband longs to say something that will pierce and slay and scarify all men (and all women, too, for the matter of that) with one fell epigram. Compact cynical remarks like those of Rochefoucauld are exactly what he wants. And when you object to his free use of them, you are likely to be losing your pains unless you can prove that he had no wife, that she did not run away from him, and that his best friend did not take her. That is to say, unless you expunge from existence certain manifest notorious facts known to you and to him and all the world, it is idle to exclaim against that peculiar class of aphorisms which

collect and condense these facts into a small compass fit for daily use.

As regards the particular specimen of cynical remark with which we started—namely, that men generally do not like to see very great and, as they think, undeserved good luck befall their friends—we consider it to be, with proper limitations, indisputably true. We say distinctly “good luck,” not honest success in life won by hard meritorious effort. Most men are generous enough not to envy the latter, or wise enough to keep their feelings very quiet if they do. But those rich windfalls which occasionally hoist a rather dull apathetic man several degrees above his hard-working companions are seldom seen without dislike, or mentioned without a sneer. For instance, the inducing an heiress to marry you is always more or less resented—more rather than less. All rivalry and wounded vanity apart, when Jones succeeds in doing this, it is regarded by Smith and Brown and Robinson as a very questionable, not to say shabby, transaction. They may never have seen the girl. She may have been Jones's cousin with whom he played when they were children down in the country. There was never the remotest chance that they could have won her. Still, what was there in Jones that she should go and marry him? He was plucked at College, and had stuck hopelessly fast at the Bar; and now the fellow is putting up for the county, and is safe, through the influence of his wife's property, to get in. It shows—what somebody indeed had remarked before—that Jones was not the easy good fellow he appeared to be, but that at bottom there was something of the sneak in him. It is true that poor Jones all this time is doing his very utmost to conciliate his old friends, and induce them to forgive him his good luck. But they can only half do it even when they try hard, which they do not often do. He declares there shall be no change in his old relations with them, that they must all come down in September for the shooting, and that they will all be jollier than ever. He is a deluded man, and finds it out in time. Shooting, indeed! when Robinson's tailor will not be induced to trust him for another shooting-coat, and Brown would have to appear with his old muzzled-loader among the breech-loading swells he would be sure to meet at Jones's. The latter hinted there were plenty of guns; but that only showed his natural want of delicacy, which wealth had increased. And even if they do manage to get over their sulks, and go down to be introduced to Jones's wife, it is in a grim, defiant humour, and with the set determination not to be pleased. Brown confides in the sympathetic ear of Robinson that, as for Mrs. Jones, he (Brown) would not have her for all her money ten times over. Robinson declares he was just going to say the very same thing. They both agree that Jones has grown detestably conceited and bumptious, and notice that, with all his riches, he was odiously mean. The wine could be drunk by no man who valued his health, and there was not a horse in the stables fit to be ridden. And the company, too; did any one ever see such a set of pompous, empty-headed dullards? The whole place also, it was found, had an air of ceremony and buckram which was very offensive. When it was hinted that Mrs. Jones—who, however, was very meek, and said nothing about it—preferred that pipes and tobacco should be confined as much as possible to the billiard and smoking-rooms, Brown shrugged his shoulders, and hoped something terrible might befall him before he would be henpecked in that way.

Of course, the forms of luck are as various as the men who get shares of it. Perhaps, in the above instance, we have adverted to the most unpopular form of all. The essence of unpopular luck is that it shall be considerable, and apparently all but entirely undeserved. For this reason the hymeneal type is exceptionally odious. Still the popular taste is not any more consistent in this than it is in a number of other cases. Some forms of luck are, as it were, privileged. If you are the son of a bishop or the nephew of a Lord Chancellor, it is considered to be quite in the order of nature that several fat things should sooner or later fall to you. You would be rather pitted than otherwise if they did not. And yet to be a bishop's son, or even to be a bishop yourself, is not much less a freak of good fortune than to succeed in carrying off an heiress. There is a certain flukiness about both. No man by dint of steady industry and self-denial can make himself a bishop's son, and it is by no means certain that those virtues will always make him a bishop. Certain qualities are doubtless necessary to ensure either matrimonial or episcopal luck. It has been said, as regards the first, that three things are needed, namely, opportunity, importunity, and propinquity; these three, but the greatest of these is opportunity. Opportunity—that is the lucky element which nothing will replace, and which men find it so hard to forgive. Yet it cannot be denied that in the captivity of a mitre, as compared with the captivity of an heiress, opportunity is less, and importunity and the persevering virtues are more. Hence, possibly, the less objectionable character which the former kind of success generally bears.

We by no means wish to maintain that a lucky man's friends are always envious, and that he always bears his honours with due meekness. Such a view would imply ignorance both of the world and of human nature. But we do maintain that the lucky man has very often much harder measure dealt to him than he would have if he were not lucky. His foibles are put under a microscope, and his virtues are ignored or taken for granted without thanks. He must not only come up to, he must exceed, the ordinary standard, to be pardoned at all. If he is inclined to be generous and open-handed, people say “And so he ought to be, he has got plenty.” If he is the least bit stingy, he is pronounced to

be a Shylock at once. Two things contribute to create this injustice. It is probable that the lucky man, before his luck, was a needy man. His small means had caused him wants to be few, which he prudently and thriftily gratified. A sudden change of circumstances will not always induce a corresponding change of habits. He had been careful and saving all his life, and he finds it hard, even undesirable, to become lavish and careless in a moment. It is true he can now throw away a guinea with less privation than he could before spend a shilling; and his friends know this rather better than he does, and probably, in their own minds, substitute for his disposable guinea a five-pound note. Still, his long intimacy with the value of shillings has made him loth to part with them, not necessarily from niggardliness, but from habit and old association. All this is set down to unmitigated meanness and poverty of soul. The history of commercial success is full of instances of men who found no difficulty in giving thousands to any good and worthy object, and who yet looked after small expenses with the assiduity of a spinster living on an annuity. Again, the needy friends of a rich man are very apt to come to most erroneous and preposterous conclusions respecting the extent of his wealth. Contrasting their few hundreds with the many thousands he is supposed to have, comparing their solitary general servant with his staff of domestics, they regard his pocket as practically bottomless. They forget, or they do not know, that a rise in station very generally brings with it a more than corresponding rise in the demands made upon one. They look only at the big purse; they ignore the numbers who are aspiring to empty it.

Our moral is very high-toned and stoical, just suited to the cold weather. It is, that what is commonly called luck is very often not lucky or desirable at all, and that many a man has had occasion to rue the day (whether he did rue it, or not, is another matter) when an unexpected windfall made him the object of more or less envy. The loss of simplicity and quiet joys and tender unostentatious friendships is ill-replaced by buckram and state and hollow acquaintanceships. Of course these beautiful moral reflections will never make any man refuse a fortune when it comes in his way. But they may perhaps induce him to bear his lot more cheerfully when, as is the general case, a fortune is altogether out of his way.

#### COLLOQUIAL FALLACIES.

**M**OST people are disposed to think, in their inmost consciousness, that they can talk well under certain circumstances. Only unfortunately, in the majority of cases, those circumstances which are the fostering nurses of good conversation are never to be found except in more or less strict privacy. And, after all, a man must be a very poor creature indeed who cannot say things which they of his own household at least will take to be full of point and brilliance. The “petty tyrant of the fireside” can generally ensure both attention and applause for the oracular wisdom that it is his august pleasure to dispense. When the circle of listeners is enlarged, and family partiality or family servility ceases to work, he may be conscious that he is making no mark, except the mark of the bore. Still the man reflects that there are different classes of talkers; that there is one glory of the sun and another glory of the moon; and that, while some men shine brightest in society, there are others whom only an esoteric audience can appreciate or bring out to their best. Then there are others who, finding themselves unable to talk well, or perhaps even unable to talk at all among men, recover their own esteem by the conviction that they can talk agreeably and fluently to women. In the discussions of their own sex about books or politics or horses or wine, even though not devoid of knowledge or opinion, they are cursed with a tormenting dumbness that always prevents them from saying anything which is both worth saying in itself and precisely to the point as well. But among ladies they are unrivalled. They can make way with the very dullest and most unspeakably insipid of these enchanting creatures. At a slow dinner-party, or in the intervals of the dance, they prattle to their partners like a giant rejoicing to run his course. This is their grand arena. Other men may, if they will, discourse powerfully in the House of Commons, or in club bow-windows, or among theologians and scholars. But not for all their triumphs of the tongue would the genuine lady's man exchange his own skill and success. It must be admitted that talking to women is, as a rule, a much more difficult thing to do than talking to men. The majority alike of men and women are horribly vapid on nearly every subject but some one or two in which their own interests are centred. But women are more vapid than men, because they are not even supposed to feel any interest in most of the things which make the material of good conversation. With a man, one always has the common ground of the newspaper. The dullest of men can generally get fairly hold of the one idea set forth in a leading article, and this gives him a sort of impetus. Ladies, on the other hand, don't even get so much as this. And, in consequence of the conventional restraint put upon all their ideas and chances of acquiring ideas, they do not catch more than half the allusions in which, as distinguished from elaborate statements, good talk always abounds. The allusions have to be explained, with the same effect as decanting soda-water. Remembering all this, we are bound to confess that the pride of the man who can talk well to ladies is not unjust or exaggerated. The knack of making bricks



without straw, of being able to go on talking about absolutely nothing, is one of the most admirable of social gifts. Perhaps, in the case of young ladies, at any rate, the boundary line between agreeable talk and adroit flirtation is not very accurately marked. A little spice of flirtation is a wonderful improvement to talk in the eyes of the average young lady of common life.

The most spurious, as well as the most pretentious, kind of good talker is the man who talks magazines. If anybody chooses to give his mind to it, this is a very easy road to a certain sort of conversational success—a fact which may account for its comparative popularity. It is an especially favourite method among college dons. The author of the *Student's Manual*, or somebody of the same stamp, assures every young man that, if he will only read five verses of the Greek Testament each morning after breakfast all through life, he will retain his hold at once of the niceties of the Greek tongue and of the verities of the Christian faith. On something like the same principle, a conversational don believes that half an hour spent religiously every afternoon in the magazine-room of the Union will eventually make a man the most successful talker of his age. Of course it is not enough to run your eye over the popular English magazines. All the world does this. It is in some of the French and German, and even American, periodicals that the finest veins are to be discovered. Here the ingenious and industrious explorer constantly "strikes ile," and of the very best quality. Foreign periodicals abound much more freely than our own in new views, astounding interpretations, outrageous rehabilitations, and overwhelming hypotheses. To advance one of these, with a few of what the author took for proofs and arguments, may establish a reputation for a whole evening. But then the process must be conducted with judgment. The subject has to be easily brought up, though some masters of this art prefer the bolder method of seizing an early pause in the conversation, and at once launching forth into the middle of things. It is very desirable, if possible, that the subject should be one on which the listeners know a little, but not too much. They are thus tempted to offer bits of criticism which the conversationalist, having got up his theme, demolishes in a most masterly manner. Of course, all this must be done gracefully and without assumption. The art of dissembling your art is as requisite in conversation as in anything else, and it is as useful in artificial as in really good conversation. But in spite of its temporary success, talk which is the result of special cram has no place in the true art. Men who cram themselves for talking purposes are like women who resort to the rouge-pot, and wear false hair. Both painted women and crammed men may be very pleasant people in their way. Society, perhaps, could not get on without them; and it is a great blunder to fly into a passion with the vanity which prompts a recourse to false pretences. Still, men who habitually let off magazine articles over wine, or in walks with their friends, should learn that they are not true talkers, any more than a copyist is an artist, or a translator of books a creative author.

A small class of men of a polemic turn of mind mistake disputation and argument for talk. They do not care for any conversation which does not somehow or other develop an issue, a position which is open to more than one view. A good talk to them is pretty nearly synonymous with a hot and close argumentation. They are like those mythical Americans who go through the world as roaring lions, seeking free fights. People, in their view, only meet for the sharp encounter of native wits. The quiet, easy flow of talk is a tame, dull waste of precious time that ought to have been spent in assertion and replication, in rejoinder and rebutter and surrebutter, in quick clenching and rapid refutation. A couple of people of this disputatious temper may prove as outrageous a nuisance as the most pompous conversational autocrat that ever lived and talked. It is highly proper to be anxious for truth. If you hear anybody say the thing that is not, or that in your opinion is not, and if you have a short and decisive confutation easily within reach, then it is well to lay on, and not to spare. But a sustained duel is a sheer vexation to calm over-lookers. Instead of trusting that right may win, they sigh in vain for the descent of some just angel who should inflict upon the disputants the fate of the Kilkenny cats. As De Quincy says, in speaking of Dr. Parr's rudenesses in this direction, "mere good sense is sufficient, without any experience at all of high life, to point out the intolerable absurdity of allowing two angry champions to lock up and sequester, as it were, the whole social enjoyment of a large party, and compel them to sit, 'in sad civility,' witnesses of a contest which can interest the majority neither by its final object nor its management." Now and then, it is true, one meets a fool so hollow and so pretentious that it is impossible to resist the temptation of having a throw with him. But even in such a case as this, the execution ought to be swift and certain. If you can impose absolute silence on your fool, it may be worth while to spend a little time and trouble in despatching him. But if he be one of those lively fools who can skip to and fro with the celerity and heartiness of that ignoble but tormenting insect which can leap a hundred times the length of its own body, who is no sooner expelled from one corner than he has entrenched himself in another, then it is much the better plan to leave him to disport at his ease. And though an encounter between a blockhead and a philosopher may, under certain conditions, be amusing and useful, an encounter between two philosophers in society is a distinct absurdity.

There is a peculiar form of the affectation of good talk especially prevalent in our own time. If one were engaged in classifying

the popular fallacies about colloquial excellence, this might be called the Dark Lantern Fallacy. It consists in suddenly shooting down upon the conversation with a sharp explosive sentence, which is uttered in a couple of seconds, but whose influence upon the talkers is much more enduring. This is very useful at times. To let a ray of light into a discussion by a keen paradox may be to do excellent service. But paradox may readily be carried too far. The knack is easily acquired, and this is in itself a presumption against it. The youngest undergraduate is nowadays often master of the art of saying these pungent, half-true, and wholly exaggerated things. The prime secret of the art consists in being entirely without reverence. Of the men who have won reputations by these trenchant, far-shooting interpolations in talk, the most have earned their laurels by the simple trick of bringing something that most people look upon with respect or awe into juxtaposition with something else that is ludicrous and petty. This is amusing enough as far as it goes. The Philistines and reverential folks have so much of their own way in the world, that the occasional epigram which tempers their despotism cannot be anything but welcome. The worst of it is, that the applause which rewards the man who suddenly lets out a keen ray and then shuts his light up, lying subtly in wait for his next chance, is very likely to make him think a great deal better of himself than he is at all justified in doing. For six epigrams in an evening do not make a good talker. And men, or rather lads, of this stamp—for men find the comparative worthlessness of the knack—are apt to forget the difference between a keen epigram, a vigorous antithesis, or a hissing paradox, on the one hand, and mere pertness and dippancy on the other. It would take a very long time to classify all the varieties of good talk, elevated or merely colloquial. Dr. Johnson was a good talker in one way, and Coleridge in another. Their styles are wide as the poles asunder. But each has characteristic merit in his style, and between them lie all sorts of shades and degrees. A man ought to be quite catholic in his views about good conversation, only this does not prevent him from seeing that in society there is a great deal of dull, stupid, or pert mimicry of talk. Against display of vanity in this shape everybody should earnestly set his face. It is one of the most annoying of the minor social sins.

#### BRICK ARCHITECTURE IN LOWER SAXONY.

WE have lately in several articles incidentally mentioned the remarkable examples of brick architecture, ecclesiastical and domestic, which are to be found in several of the cities of Northern Germany. It may be as well finally to wind up the subject by some attempt at generalization as to the peculiarities of the style, at least as it appears in the district with which we have been dealing—one which may be described as the north-eastern part of the ancient Circle of Lower Saxony. The brick district of North Germany extends much further than this, and any very wide generalization on the subject would therefore be dangerous. But classified local observations have always a certain value, if only as making a beginning, as starting subjects for examination, as suggesting hints which such further examination may either confirm or confute. We have therefore no hesitation in putting together some general remarks on the brick buildings of that particular district. Further inquiry may show how far the same characteristics extend, or do not extend, beyond its limits.

Architectural style, it is obvious, is always much influenced by the material employed. This, in most cases, is the same thing as saying that it is influenced by the nature of the country and the materials which it supplies. It is of course always possible to procure materials from a distance; Caen stone and Purbeck marble are found employed in places at a great distance from Caen and Purbeck. But such a practice can never be universal; it can only apply to buildings of unusual importance, where cost is of comparatively little moment. The mass of the buildings of any country will always be built of the materials supplied by the country itself. If a district supplies a good stone, the architecture of that district will be superior to that of its neighbours; a good style of building will be introduced earlier and will last longer. The excellence of the buildings of Somersetshire and Northamptonshire, and the late date to which good architecture survived in both counties, is mainly owing to the abundance of good building stone in each. A district where good stone is not found, if not very far from a stone district, may, like the Lincolnshire Holland, import stone from a neighbouring district which is better off. But commonly a district without good stone will be left to its own resources. A poor, rural district, especially if well wooded, will continue largely to employ timber both for churches and houses, and its architectural style will necessarily lag behind its neighbours. The western midland counties of England and a large part of Wales will supply instances. There is a lavish employment of wood, roofs attain to a sort of barbaric richness, but ornamental stone-work is rare except in buildings of special importance. A richer district in such a case will employ brick as a substitute for stone. An occasional brick building of mediæval date is found in the east of England, diversifying the flint-work of East-Anglia, and the timber-work of Essex. But, as a rule, an ancient brick church in England is a rare object, and, though we have abundance of splendid brick houses, they are nearly all of late date.

But in the great commercial cities of the district of which we have spoken, brick is the universal material for buildings of all

classes. Churches, houses, gateways, town-walls, are all of brick. Brunswick, as we have seen, is a stone city; Bremen is half stone and half brick; but in Lüneburg, Lübeck, Schwerin, Wismar, Rostock, and Doberan, brick is universal. It is also the material of such small remains of ancient Hamburg as retain any architectural character at all. Here are materials for at least the beginnings of an induction; and it may be profitable to compare the buildings of this region with those of another great brick district in Aquitaine. The buildings of Aquitaine and of Lower Saxony are as unlike as buildings of the same material can be, but the use of the same material has made a certain amount of likeness unavoidable.

The use of brick necessarily involves a certain degree of plainness. Unless stone is mingled with it, it is impossible to produce the rich mouldings, the elaborate tracery and foliage, of mediæval stone architecture. Stone mouldings are cut by the hand; brick mouldings are cast in a mould. It is therefore impossible to give to brick the same freedom and variety which can be given to stone. For his mouldings, his tracery, his foliage, the brick architect is unavoidably confined to a few simple forms. A certain degree of sameness is the necessary result. One or two plain types of window occur everywhere in the brick district of Lower Saxony; attempts at more elaborate tracery are found sometimes, as very conspicuously in St. Katharine's Church at Lübeck, but they are quite exceptional. Hence, as a rule, the brick styles do not attempt very wide windows. In Aquitaine, the narrowness of the windows is appropriate to the climate; but no such reason exists in Lower Saxony. The German architects attempt wider windows much oftener than those of Aquitaine, but the wider they are the worse they are. The brick style never shows to greater perfection than when the windows are many, tall, and narrow, as in a large part of St. Mary's at Rostock. But, though Germany can show wider windows than Aquitaine, its brick architecture has nowhere anything to compete with the triumphs of the art of tracery elsewhere. The vast pointed windows of England, the magnificent circles of France, are utterly unknown. But it is an ill wind that blows nobody any good. If the windows of the brick churches are mostly plain and monotonous, they are at least saved from reproducing the abominable perversions into which Flamboyant tracery ran in other parts of Germany.

From this peculiarity another follows. It is by no means so easy to fix the date of brick buildings as it is of those of stone. Brick architecture clearly did not follow stone architecture in its various later developments. The general use of brick would seem to have come in during the thirteenth century. In the cities mentioned above, there is very little brick work of earlier date, except in Lübeck Cathedral. Most of the buildings are much later than the thirteenth century. But there is an impress of the latter half of that century upon all of them. While the worker in stone, having the free use of his hands as well as of his head, was always inventing one new form or another, the brick artist, working with moulds, kept to the few simple forms which were first introduced. Geometrical and Arched tracery were in use when the brick style came into use, and to Geometrical and Arched tracery the brick style adhered throughout. The Arched tracery, as the simpler of the two, was the favourite. Flowing tracery, Perpendicular, and Flamboyant are unknown; even the *Katharinenkirche* at Lübeck, where the tracery is so much more elaborate than usual, does not get beyond Geometrical forms. One almost wonders, when one remembers the constant intercourse between England and the Hanse Towns, that some observant man did not introduce a little English Perpendicular. The stiffness and regularity of its form would, one would have thought, have quite suited them. But though a stray Perpendicular window or two does turn up at Zürich and at other places where nobody would have looked for it, at Lübeck, where one would have looked for something of the kind, it is not to be found.

It follows therefore that there is not much to be learned from these churches in the way of architectural detail or of the succession of architectural styles. They may be said roughly to be all in one style. Even where there is manifest difference of date, where a building has undergone manifest changes or additions, there is commonly nothing that can be called difference of style between the earlier and the later work. The exceptions to this rule are to be found in the few examples where any part of the brickwork goes back to Romanesque times, as in Lübeck Cathedral and in the very curious church of St. Nicholas at Rostock. There is nothing analogous to that juxtaposition and substitution of different varieties of Gothic with which we are so familiar in England.

Indeed, the architects of these buildings seem quite to have understood that the simplicity and monotony of detail which appears inseparable from the material must be made up for in some other way. And made up it truly is in the general majesty, the amazing height, the varied and elaborate outlines, of these churches. In this last respect they differ in a marked way from the brick churches of Aquitaine. These, with Alby at their head, affect a certain simplicity of conception which would make them admirable models for modern town churches. Alby has neither aisles nor transepts, and therefore no pillars or arcades; it is one gigantic body with mere chapels between the buttresses. But the brick churches of Lower Saxony revel in the variety of subordinate chapels, transepts, and so forth, which they throw out in every direction. The tall aisleless apse, so characteristic of German Gothic, such as we see at Bern, Freiburg, Dortmund, and, in its highest development, at Aachen, is exchanged, in the greater churches, for elaborate groupings of apsidal chapels, more in the

French style, though with distinct arrangements of their own. Nothing can be more striking in this way than the two great churches at Lübeck. The Friars churches, however, even here, sometimes cleave, as in St. John's at Bremen, to their characteristically simple forms, and, by the oddest caprice of all, several very fine churches, including two of those at Rostock, have flat east ends. But the grouping of chapels at the east end and the addition of chapels to all sorts of unusual places is distinctly the rule. In point of height, the larger churches positively revel. Few interiors anywhere surpass in general effect either the *Marienkirche* at Lübeck or its namesake at Wismar.

It is curious that, while variety of outline is so carefully sought in this way, it is not sought at all in the way most fertile of it, and most characteristic of other parts of Germany—namely, the grouping of towers. A single western tower, with perhaps a *dachreiter* or *lowre* over the junction of nave and choir, is the rule, and the great Lübeck churches depart from it only so far as to substitute a pair of western towers. Central towers, eastern towers, side towers, double choirs like Hildesheim, are all unknown. The single western tower, as at Moissac and Alby, seems also the Aquitanian rule, though some of the churches of Toulouse have very fine single side towers. Some of these single western towers, commonly crowned with tall spires of wood and lead, are magnificent structures, and the variety in design is very great. Such are St. John at Lüneburg and St. Nicholas at Rostock. The west front of the *Marienkirche* at Rostock is an indescribable vagary, which, though the opposite to beautiful, is almost worth going to Rostock to see. The *Marienkirche* at Wismar has a saddleback; the tower of St. Giles in the same city, like that of Schwerin Cathedral, is unfinished. Doberan has no tower at all.

The houses present a greater variety of external ornament than the churches. But this variety consists almost wholly in the repetition of various Geometrical patterns, wrought commonly in bricks of different colours. The fronts of the houses are generally finished towards the street with what is locally called a *schultergabel*, answering to the *corbie-steps* of Scotland. This, in some of the richest examples, swells into a series of small gables and pinnacles; in others, there are no corbie-steps, but one large gable of the natural shape. But, in all cases, the design rises to a central point, so as to allow a series of blank arcades rising one above the other. A more effective form of street architecture could hardly be devised; still there is something not wholly satisfactory about it. It is unreal; go round the corner and look at the roof, and the *schultergabel* is at once seen to be a sham, no less than the west fronts of Wells, Lincoln, and Salisbury Cathedrals.

These noble buildings, both churches and houses, are very little known to English antiquaries, and it strikes us that they are not valued as they should be by their own possessors. In England the study of mediæval architecture has fairly made its way; it is established that the buildings of a country are an essential part of its history. Those who do not care for the study themselves fully recognise that there are other people who do, and that those who do so are engaged in a rational pursuit. But very well-informed men in North Germany seem in a manner puzzled that an historical inquirer should take any interest at all in the ecclesiastical and domestic architecture of their cities. And certainly the pursuit of architectural knowledge in those regions is in some respects a pursuit of knowledge under difficulties. A most perverse habit prevails of planting trees close up against the churches, as if on purpose to stand in the way of any one who wishes to draw them. And in no part of the world does the appearance of an architectural student arouse such amazement. The unlucky artist is surrounded by a mob of unruly children, whom there seems no law or police to restrain. One hears much of the police in the German States, but just when they might be useful they keep themselves hidden. In the Prussian dominions the educational system of which we hear so much seems to provide an everlasting supply of idle urchins, who are always coming out of school and never going in. At Lübeck things are rather better, at Bremen rather worse. At Wismar a kind of martyrdom has to be endured in the form of actual pelting, which makes one think that the local discipline of the cudgel might in some cases not come amiss. An artist must in any part of the world be prepared for a certain amount of annoyance, which he easily learns to put up with. But any annoyance which he may meet with in any part of England or France is a trifle compared with what in this respect seems to be the utter barbarism of the North-German cities.

#### THE INDÉPENDANCE BELGE.

DESPOTISM, considered as a fine art, requires a strict attention to certain fixed canons. A despot may be a very imposing, and even at times a rather attractive, figure. A single man, standing in the midst of a prostrate nation, and saying that no hand nor foot shall be moved, no word spoken, and no writing published, except as he pleases, occupies a very effective dramatic situation. A determined despot may therefore generally reckon upon drawing crowded audiences of admirers. But it is not the less necessary that, to support the character satisfactorily, he should always keep in view one or two rules. He should never interfere ineffectually, and he should never interfere about trifles. He should know exactly what are the limits beyond which his action becomes inevitably absurd. A schoolmaster, who is a despot on a small scale, may whip his own pupils into order if he likes; but a very little good sense will teach him not to extend his operations to



the small boys who may chaff him in the streets. From that kind of conflict no man ever comes out a winner. To take a more dignified example, the first Napoleon was an object of anything but ridicule in his own proper sphere; but when he took to fighting against the gossip of ladies in drawing-rooms, or the scribbling of petty libellers in London, he became simply absurd; he was making tyranny cheap, and using heavy artillery ineffectually against popguns. Although the nephew has made several improvements upon the system of his uncle, this is one of the vices which he does not seem to have succeeded in eradicating. He, or his subordinates, succeed every now and then in being teasing when they ought to be terrible; and they cannot refrain from administering slaps in the face, where a really telling blow is beyond their power. If the system of which a specimen has just been given in the prohibition of the *Indépendance Belge* were to be carried out in all matters, the French Empire would lose the prestige derivable from adherence to the "grand style," and would be associated more often with the petty nuisances than with the serious dangers of the rest of the world.

Englishmen, indeed, are apt to rank all interference with the liberties of the press amongst the ineffectual varieties of tyranny. There is a whole series of arguments, which have fortunately with us become commonplaces, pointing out the obvious limits to this kind of oppression. We say, and with some undeniable force, that the disease of discontent may be driven inwards by such means, but cannot be really exterminated. If we are not allowed to discuss our grievances publicly, we shall not cease to think about them in private. Danger to government really arises from defective political arrangements, and not from the gratuitous suggestions of malicious writers; and, consequently, an attack upon the right of grumbling is directed against the symptoms, and not against the malady itself. But, however true this may be in the long run, it is also true that political persecution may occasionally be as successful as religious persecutions have often been. Whatever optimists may say, it is a fact that rational creeds have been before now crushed out by the stake and the gibbet. And a good systematic despotism may succeed, not only in keeping down a set of agitators, but in course of time in stifling all spirit of agitation. A nation may be tamed as well as a wild beast, and may by degrees lose the habit of protesting against anything that comes from the hands of its rulers. Its moral fibre may be softened by a steady application of the machinery of suppression, and it may lose the power of speech from being obliged to hold its tongue. Whatever else may be said against the censorship and the practice of gagging the press, it cannot therefore be said that it is ineffective. Despotism may be in this case wicked, but it is at least not ridiculous. It satisfies the æsthetic conditions of the art. Mr. Rush was not exactly justified morally in shooting down everybody he met in Mr. Jermy's house; but, if we discard such considerations, he did his work thoroughly, and in a manner to excite the enthusiasm of an amateur in murders. And so long as Louis Napoleon tightens all his screws upon his own press, he is doing nothing of which we can fairly say that it is either out of character or beneath his dignity. It doubtless entails a good deal of very dirty work upon inferior agents, as there is always something mean about the action of despotic power when it is seen from too near. In all warfare there is much that is simply brutal and disgusting, if we insist upon looking at the details; and the Emperor's war against the expression of liberal thought in France is no exception to the rule. The incessant bullying to which wretched editors are subject, at the hands of officials, for publishing false news or criticizing Imperial wisdom, seems mean enough. One wonders in each particular case how it can possibly be worth while to use such weapons in such a vexatious spirit. A list which was published in the *Times* a few days ago curiously illustrates this system of petty persecution. In the charming French official jargon, every paper in the country seems to be always "tending to mislead public opinion," or "tending to trouble the consciences of the citizens," or "tending to throw ridicule on the acts of the Emperor's Government, and thus to 'excite the hatred and contempt of the citizens against each other, and hatred and contempt against the Government.'" From the first journals of Paris down to the *Esperance de Nancy*, or the *Journal des Rennes*, no paper seems to escape. If our Government were to be engaged in constant official censures of Mr. Potts of the *Eatonswill Gazette*, we should know who was responsible for bringing it into "hatred and contempt." But to blame the French authorities for this is to insist upon prying unfairly at the seamy side of the cloth. The Emperor is of course responsible only for the general principle that the press is to be put into a strait-waistcoat, and not for the special wounds and bruises which the constraint may inflict upon the patient. And if the French people consider the other benefits of his rule so great that they can afford to forego the right of free speech, or to wait till he considers them fit to receive a larger measure of freedom, we have comparatively little motive to complain. We can, even as a matter of taste, admire the spectacle of a severely repressive system carried out with such artistic completeness and symmetry. But it becomes a different question when despotism begins to over-reach itself. The system of suppressing a native paper after three warnings is intelligible, and effective for its purpose. A crushing weight is constantly suspended over the heads of the possible sinners. But the exclusion of a foreign newspaper can hardly ever act in this way at all. We do not know what may be the circulation of the *Indépendance Belge* in France, but it certainly cannot be

such as to render the blow an effective one. The paper will still continue to appear, without any increased goodwill towards the French Government. If, as is suggested, this act is intended to be the beginning of a new system of treating foreign journals generally, it seems to be still more childish. The effect, for example, of excluding the English papers from France would to them be insignificant. It is true that a number of harmless tourists would be made extremely miserable. Many of our countrymen, and still more Americans, appear to go through a foreign tour as an unavoidable, but a most oppressive, duty. They may be seen in gloomy clusters, during the intervals of sightseeing, solacing themselves in a steady perusal of their native literature, and returning in fancy to Pall Mall or Fifth Avenue. These unlucky beings would be deprived of a harmless consolation; hotel-keepers would suffer from the ill-temper of their visitors; and the very small number of Frenchmen who now trouble themselves to study English papers would be reduced either to smuggling them, or to supplying the desired article from their own imagination. But, as far as the papers themselves are concerned, nothing could well be feeblener. It would just be annoying enough to produce a small additional irritation, and to supply one more convenient taunt for use against the French Government. It would resemble, on a small scale, the measures directed against the *détenu*; that is, the gratification of inflicting a little personal hardship would be bought at the price of raising a disproportionate amount of general indignation.

The folly of indulging in such an impotent expression of anger is, however, so obvious that we ought perhaps to seek for another motive. It may be that the French Government is really afraid of moral contagion from the entry of foreign newspapers—that it wishes to conceal from Frenchmen the fact that, beyond their borders, there are outside barbarians who are not in an eternal attitude of admiration. The disease of disloyalty is to be treated like the cholera, by denying its existence. The present plan of seizing every alternate number of a good many journals might, one would have thought, be sufficiently effective; but it seems that Frenchmen's constitutions are of that singularly susceptible nature, or the contagion is conveyed in so impalpable a form, that the poison passes the keen eyes of the French police without detection. It is not enough that no article is ostensibly directed against that pure and perfect form of government established in France. Any paper which has once adopted principles capable of such a sinister application must doubtless be saturated with them in every number; and a Frenchman cannot be trusted even to read an expurgated edition of the offending print. We can only say that the French Government are doubtless the best judges of the character of their countrymen. If, however, this view is really well-founded, the French people must be inflammable beyond anything of which we had any conception. The circulation of foreign newspapers is of necessity limited, and especially amongst the dangerous classes; it is only the more cultivated and intelligent who are likely ever to glance at them, and they must of course be superior to any sophistries directed against the Emperor. The infusion of foreign journalism into the intellectual food of the people is not only small itself, but the more objectionable bits have always been effectually sifted out; yet now it seems that even this diet is dangerous, and that the most homœopathic dose of the least tainted bits of a respectable Belgian journal cannot be admitted without danger. Certainly, the plague or the cholera must be slow in spreading contagion in comparison with this political virus, which makes one number of a paper perilous reading because another number has said something against the Emperor.

If we endeavour to interpret this act into language, it admits of two meanings. In the first place, it says to the *Indépendance Belge*—"We are very angry with you, and would hurt you if we could; but as we can't cut off your head, we will tread on your toes." Secondly, it may mean, "We are in a terrible fright; for Frenchmen are in such a morbid state that they cannot with safety be permitted even to know that papers exist in foreign countries after having been censured by us." Now neither of these utterances would be very wise or very dignified. One would be a feeble insult, and the other a cowardly expression of alarm. Probably neither was really meant; and it was simply the case that some Minister was taken with a desire to round everything neatly off, and thought that there was an apparent incongruity in allowing a liberty to foreigners which was not enjoyed by Frenchmen. Whereupon he did a very foolish thing, which people will of course interpret, like other acts from the same quarter, as meaning more than it really does. It is sometimes comforting to observe that the French Government, much as it is admired, can be both silly and illogical.

#### CANTEENS.

IN every barrack, as probably most of our readers know, there is a place set apart as the canteen. It is usually a detached building of one or two storeys. It contains a bar and bar-parlour, with cellars underneath, a tap-room or two, and two or three dwelling-rooms. Its business, including the sale of beer, tobacco, and such like creature-comforts, is very much that of a general provision-store, and its keeper has the sole right of sale within the barrack. In former days, and that not so very long ago, the right of keeping the canteen was farmed out. The soldier was himself regularly sold to the highest bidder, and very high he was frequently

paid for. The inevitable consequences followed. The Government of the day and the publican made a good thing of it; the soldier made a very bad thing of it. The publican sold the very worst articles, including as much drink as he could dispose of, at the very highest prices; the soldier consumed them, and they in turn consumed him, and the great British public paid for another to fill his place. This phase of canteen life was so utterly bad that it could not exist amidst the general improvements of the age, and some few years ago a better state of things arose. The farming system was abolished, and tenants were appointed at very low rents. They paid, indeed, nothing for the privilege of keeping the canteen, but only for their dwelling-rooms. The public sacrificed the amount they had gained under the old plan in order that the soldier might receive, in reduced prices and better articles, what the public had for his sake given up. This arrangement was, no doubt, an improvement upon the former one. But as time wore on, the fact crept out, somehow or other, that things were not working well. The tenants were making great profits. The soldier, in very many instances at any rate, enjoyed but little of those advantages which the new system was intended to give him. The one object of the tenant was to make all he could out of the soldier, and his profit was only the larger by the amount that his rent was lighter.

At length, but only a year or two ago, a new idea—and this is not the least curious part of the story—dawned upon the official mind. It would appear that somebody in power suddenly realized the fact that, under the arrangements existing in India, the soldier alone reaped the benefit of whatever profits the canteens might produce; and that it was not beyond the bounds of possibility that what had worked so advantageously for years for the troops there, might be adopted for the troops at home. Now this is what is actually in progress. The tenants are being gradually removed, and the canteens are being conducted by the soldiers themselves, with the voluntary assistance of their officers. The general arrangements are sufficiently simple. There is a managing committee, consisting of three officers. Under these the business is conducted by a sergeant, who acts as steward, and receives as such half-a-crown a day, and who is assisted by two or three soldiers and their wives, who are each paid a shilling a day. The committee have the power of removing one or all; but the sergeant must be removed once in six months. The whole system works under the general control of the officer in command of the regiment. The committee meet monthly, and oftener if necessary, and keep a record of their proceedings. At each meeting they carefully audit the books, which show the stock in trade, with the cost and retail prices, the daily sales and takings, and the accounts, assets, and liabilities. At the same time the committee take stock, authorize purchases, and regulate prices—subject, however, to a law that the price of any one article is not to be unfairly increased in order to lower that of another. Printed lists of the prices are conspicuously placed in the canteen, and are revised as alterations are made. The accounts are open, under proper restrictions, to the inspection of those concerned, and the money taken daily is handed over within the day to the committee, and deposited by them with the paymaster of the regiment, or in some other secure hands. Cheques drawn upon this fund must be signed by two of the committee. Out of the profits—which are not allowed to accumulate beyond a sum of two hundred pounds—have to be paid the cost of maintaining everything required for use in the canteen, as well as a heavy percentage (12 per cent. per annum) upon any articles originally bought for its use from the public funds; also such a rent as will keep the building in complete repair, insurance of stock against fire, wages, the cost of warming and of lighting, of the license, and of all other charges incidental to the business. Once a quarter the commanding officer sends an abstract of the accounts, which have been laid before him monthly, to the general officer who commands in the district, with precise information, not only as to what has been done with the profits, but also as to what has been proposed, rejected, or postponed. The general officer has the power of controlling the proceedings of any erratic commanding officer or committee, by insisting upon any expenditure which he may consider injudicious being put a stop to, or at any rate suspended until he can obtain instructions. Finally, he, in his turn, has to send on all the information which he receives for the scrutiny of the Commander-in-Chief, and of the Secretary of State for War. A rapid and complete audit is thus established.

The benefits which the soldier reaps from these arrangements are as obvious as they are real and solid. As in an ordinary club, goods are bought wholesale, and can be sold at little above wholesale rates. Thus the soldier gets better articles, and more of them, and at lower prices than he could before obtain them at—a matter of the greatest moment, especially to the married soldier. It is also found that, notwithstanding low prices, and though every expense connected with the canteen is paid for out of its funds—so that, wonderful to say, it costs the public nothing—yet profits will accumulate, as they do in every trade. And as any accumulation beyond the limited sum already named is forbidden, these profits are spent entirely upon the soldiers whose expenditure has created them. The canteen is made more comfortable, private theatricals and bowling-alleys are started, skittles, foot-balls, quoits, cricket-bats and balls, and the like, are purchased; gardens are laid out, and seeds and roots provided; and additional periodicals, newspapers, stationery, and such like things for the libraries are procured. Besides the positive comfort which all this affords the soldier, its inevitable tendency is to draw him away from those

haunts of vice which, like ill weeds, increase apace around a barrack. Nor is this all; for it is gradually leavening him also with those habits of providing for himself which constitute the most important *differentia* between the Continental and the British soldier. Indeed, the entire measure would appear to have been carefully considered and cautiously introduced, and to be one of those quiet unobtrusive improvements which result in much more real good than often arises from more loudly-trumpeted reforms.

Of course there are opponents. The small publicans—a race one is very apt to associate with sinners—are up in arms. With them, for reasons better known than they probably imagine, are some few “old soldiers”; some of the petty tradesmen of our camps and garrisons; the actual and possible ex-tenants, and the hucksters, sutlers, and all the vile crew, *terribles visu forma*, who congregate around the gates of a barrack, and minister to and fatten upon the British soldier. They are formidable, if only for their noise. Their letters and statements—some full of lamentation and woe, and some of malice, wrath, and all uncharitableness—inundate the columns of our contemporaries. We hear of appeals to Parliament that are to be, and of deputations to the Secretary of State for War that have been; and of what might, could, would, and should be done in consequence. We learn from one source that not long since “the tradesman of Aldershot held a public meeting under the presidency of Mr. Allen, a chemist, and, with one or two exceptions, the successive speakers denounced the new system as unjust, illegal, and terribly injurious to trade.” We must add, however, that “the chairman chemist, who, like a fly in amber, wondered how he got there, modestly admitted the indirectness of his personal interest in the matter.” Judging, too, from the high aspirations of that poor French suicide whose autobiographical epitaph was

Born a man,  
Died a grocer,

we may fairly own ourselves startled when our contemporary which rejoices in that name affirms that the “officers at Woolwich” have recently “outraged civil liberty” *de par le roi*, and winds up with the important question, “If the soldier turn grocer, why not green-grocer?” Why not, indeed? Many a worthy grocer must have pondered that question, and, even after conference with his brother green-grocer, have given up the solution in despair.

The opponents of the reform have, indeed, a difficult game to play. They will find it hard to persuade the soldier himself, against his common sense, that it is better for him and his wife and children to buy in a dear than in a cheap market, to have bad things than good, and to let the profits go into another man's pocket instead of into his own. They will find it hard to persuade the officer, who sees the canteen thriving and helping his men, that neither he nor his men know how to manage it, and that it is going to ruin. They will have a difficulty in persuading the higher powers to retrace their steps while they see such good results. Nor will their task be easier with the general public, who will be slow to believe, at one and the same time, that the articles sold in the canteen are worse and dearer than ever, and yet that men who never complained before are being ruined because soldiers, and even officers, will buy them. The public have long considered one of the main defects of our army to be that the officers take too little interest in the comfort and welfare of their men, and they will not easily credit that officers are otherwise than honourably and usefully employed in such a work as helping the soldier to help himself. New ideas and useful reforms are not so frequent with people in authority as to make men anxious to assist in forcing them into a bad conservatism, or to oppose any measure that seeks the soldier's good, and, among other objects, aims at his withdrawal from those haunts where poison, and corruption worse than poison, are sold to him.

We think also that the estimable persons who have placed themselves in opposition are slightly injudicious in their criticisms. Were we in their place, we should by no means make a strong point of the difference between the canteen prices and our own, if that difference happened to be cent. per cent. or so against us. An ill-natured public might possibly draw conclusions unfavourable to the principles on which we conducted our business.

#### SPECULATION IN 1865.

THAT the Company speculation of the year has been on a scale which cannot be permanently maintained without bringing disaster in its train, is unfortunately too certain; but it is very difficult to obtain any exact statistics of the real extent of the operations carried on. The exhaustive list furnished to the *Times* by Messrs. Spackman & Sons is no doubt accurate enough, but it includes in the same category Companies that get their capital and Companies that never place a share, and exhibits totals which, if they all represented actual financial operations, would justify the utmost alarm. The capital asked for by the new Companies of the past year's growth is upwards of 75,000,000*l.*, with powers to raise 30,000,000*l.* more when it may be found desirable. The average of the two previous years was even higher, the aggregate authorized capital of the three years being the enormous sum of 362,000,000*l.* But the allowances to be made considerably diminish the real effect of these grandly conceived enterprises. In the first place, many banking, insurance, and other Companies have a nominal capital which is not meant to be called up, except in the event of unforeseen disaster. Then there are many other Companies which call up



very little of their capital, not because they do not want it, but because it is hopeless to make a call; and in every case the calls are spread over a long period, the first deposit being little more than 10 or 12 per cent. And, lastly, there is the great shoal of windbag speculations, which never manage to place their shares, and entail no losses except upon the over-sanguine promoters, whom no one need pity. Unluckily, the worst Companies do not always fail to win subscribers; but it is not improbable that, if all the worthless schemes could be weeded out, the remainder would not be too much for the financial strength of the country. As a matter of fact, however, the load is rapidly increasing to a point which threatens the gravest financial dangers; and prudent men are looking to all quarters in search of some means of checking the evil before it is too late.

In a former article we expressed ourselves strongly against the notion, which has been rather inconsiderately taken up, that the evil can be best checked by repressive legislation. Though we see not the slightest reason to qualify our opinions in this respect, we should be sorry to be supposed to underrate the extent of the mischief which is now going on. Everything points to the possibility of hard times (financially speaking) within the next twelve months; and whenever the pinch may come, the drain occasioned by the multitude of mushroom Companies will tell heavily in the scale. Even if easy-going prosperity were certain to be the rule for ever, there are other results of the game of Company-making which are not less deplorable. The whole system, as it now exists, is perpetually wasting away not only the resources, but, what is much worse, the very fibre and *morale* of commerce. Why, then, it may be asked, oppose the policy of those who would put an end to the practice altogether by repealing all the facilities which the law at present affords? Simply because the system as it exists is not what it might be, and we believe will be, when a little experience has tempered the enthusiasm in favour of limited liability, to which so many fragile schemes owe their existence. In itself, the power of creating corporate Companies is of enormous value. We need look no further for evidence of this fact than the rapid transformation which is going on of the best of the old private banks into Limited Companies. That a movement of this kind should give rise to an abundance of counterfeit projects is not very surprising, and the one consideration which should be present to the minds of all who interest themselves in the future of commerce is, how the benefits of this new phase of industry may be secured without the accompanying nuisance of a shoal of bubble speculations. One part of the evil we have already endeavoured to trace to its origin, and it was not hard to find it in the well-organized trade of "promotion," as carried on by individuals, and still more perniciously by Financial Companies. Nor was the remedy for much of the ill consequences at present experienced at all more difficult to discover. Half at least of the facilities for the concoction of deceptive Companies are due to artificial causes, which it is in the power of those who control this department of traffic to remove. But this is not the most serious aspect of the matter. Losses by shareholders who gamble in shares of new Companies are injurious enough, but a more legitimate object of concern is the damage so often inflicted on straightforward traders who have been tempted, by an illusory show of activity and success, to deal with insolvent Companies on the same terms as with ordinary firms. We do not pretend to have the same pity for a victimized shareholder as for a plundered tradesman. If the purchaser of scrip finds, as he almost always does, that premiums turn into discounts before he can realize and get out of his venture, he has no one but himself to blame. It is not even certain that the waste of national wealth is at all in proportion to the sufferings of individuals. If a few hundred men lose, by the depreciation of their shares, some fifty or a hundred pounds a piece or more, for the sole benefit of a knot of ingenious projectors, the circumstance may be regretted from the point of view of poetical justice; but the operation is, after all, only a transfer of capital, and it is by no means certain that a man who may use the sharpest practice in the game of speculation will not invest his winnings with as much advantage to the public as if the money had been left in the pockets of his dupes. The case is very different when a Company breaks and leaves its creditors crippled or bankrupt in consequence. A rotten firm is no doubt as bad as a bubble Company, and the half-forgotten revelations of the last panic proved that trading without capital or honesty was not confined to Limited Companies. No corporate body has yet produced a parallel to the great Leather frauds, and the worst Company failures have been in concerns which were sustained by the unlimited liability of every shareholder. The only protection against the recurrence of such disasters is, of course, prudence in giving credit to doubtful firms, whether of the partnership or the company kind. It is true that this is a remedy which is more easily prescribed in general terms than followed in particular cases. Some amount of trusting faith is soon found to be essential by every one who engages in commerce in any shape, but the specially alarming feature of the present time is the utter reckless confidence with which credit seems to be given to the hollowest Companies. A reaction will assuredly come, when perhaps an excessive suspicion will take the place of unreasoning trust; but it would be better that the tide should turn gently now than that the flood should be suddenly checked hereafter by universal panic.

It has often astonished mere spectators to see a new firm, almost without any capital except the proceeds of accommodation bills, getting credit for hundreds of thousands with marvellous facility;

and the same spectacle may now be witnessed in a still more astounding form in the case of some of our newly-fledged Limited Companies. Cases may be seen where Companies are able to get supplies of goods and advances of capital before they have called up a shilling, and perhaps even before they have allotted a share. And the risk, in such cases, is often run, in the ordinary way of trade, by men who have no large speculative profits to look forward to in return for their venture. A Limited Bank or Discount House may be started, and straightway the deposits of customers pour in as confidently as if it were the Bank of England itself. A still more common case of delusion is that of a bubble Insurance Office. Nothing is more frequent than for Companies of this kind to be started without any guarantee of success, and yet if they only pay the due percentage to their agents, there is no difficulty in finding thousands of credulous beings who pay up their premiums in the full belief that they are placing their possible widows altogether beyond the chance of destitution. The business goes on sluggishly or actively, according to the skill and energy of the managers. For years the incomings far exceed the losses; but after a time Directors begin to see that the pleasant game of receiving money in return for promises cannot go on for ever, that people will die even though insured in the newest and showiest of offices, and that their Company must either be amalgamated or wound up. The prospect is not always an alarming one, for it is generally possible to find some other Company willing, not only to undertake liabilities in excess of the available assets, but to pay a handsome *donneur* to the old directors and officers for the purchase of a business which is intrinsically worth less than nothing. If the deficiency is not very enormous, a moderately solvent Company can generally be got to take over the concern. If affairs have drifted to a still worse condition, it makes no other difference than this—that the sale has to be made to a Company itself approaching the same condition, though not quite so far advanced. The theory of all these losing transactions is that the sacrifice is balanced by the additional connection acquired, and the new business expected to flow in as a consequence of the purchase is relied on to recompense the actual loss. But here, again, a fresh opportunity occurs for testing the credulity of the public. The old policy-holders, in the majority of cases, allow themselves to be handed over to the purchasing Company without a word of information as to its means, and often without even the security of a legally binding assurance. Now and then it happens that the game is spoiled by the obstinacy of a few policy-holders, who insist on being redeemed in full; but where one amalgamation scheme is exploded by such means, a score are carried to a successful issue. After a time, perhaps, the second Company goes through the like process. A second time the assets are bled for the benefit of Directors, and a new Company is started to take up the liabilities, or an old one still thinks them worth purchasing at a moderate price. In the end, an insurer, after enjoying in succession the security of half-a-dozen worthless Companies, finds himself a creditor of an official liquidator in the Court of Chancery, which has been for years choked up with the remains of insolvent Assurance Companies, projected for the most part, it is well to remember, before the Limited Liability Acts were dreamed of.

We have referred to this class of cases, not because Assurance Societies enjoy any special pre-eminence, but as a very striking illustration of the strange credulity with which anything that is called a Company, and opens an imposing office, is trusted by the world at large. When a man insures his life, he knows that the money will be thrown away unless the office has a credit good enough to endure for the unusually long period which the candidate for insurance assumes that he will live. He is taking a bond payable a generation hence, and yet he takes no more care to ascertain whether he is dealing with a pauper association or investing in a very mine of wealth, than if he were selling goods for ready money. If men are reckless in such matters as these, it is intelligible that they should be equally so in the ordinary short-dated transactions of commerce; and, in point of fact, the temptation of a large order almost always seems enough to induce even sensible men of business to give credit to the shakiest firms or the most absolutely insolvent companies. Like the speculators in shares, they hope that they will close the operation with a profit before the smash comes, and are content if their bad debts do not exceed some average percentage. This works tolerably enough, perhaps, while the sky is fair; but when every one has his hands full of shaky ventures, the first adverse turn of the market lays them all low together. The private losses become in the aggregate a huge national calamity, and those who fancied that their credulity endangered no one but themselves are almost more the occasion of universal distress than the knaves whose commercial existence would be impossible if the smallest caution were exercised in the common transactions of trade.

The extent to which the hollowest Companies are sustained by the easy temper of the public will perhaps, in the end, work out its own cure. In course of time it may be that the very name of a Limited Company will warn away those who are invited to deal with them as effectually as if all were in the same plight. Such a reaction would be greatly to be regretted at a time when it seems certain that these associations are destined to absorb all the other forms of partnership; but the only way in which it can be averted is by the exercise of some little fragment of discrimination by those whose business leads them into transactions with Limited Companies. The indicia of success are much the same in the

case of a company as in that of a private firm. The most prudent may be occasionally deceived in either case; but if all caution is thrown to the winds, as it seems to have been hitherto, occasional disasters will not be the end. During the last year it has at most times been possible, by energetic promotion, to form a Company to purchase anything whatever, at any price that the seller chose to put upon it; and the Company, when it had secured its precious bargain, has seldom had any difficulty in obtaining the same measure of credit as if the bulk of its capital had not already gone into the pockets of promoters. There has been a great outcry at the large number of new Companies, but the danger is much more in their quality than their quantity. We have already expressed our belief that, if all the worthless schemes could be expunged, those that remained would perhaps not be too numerous or too extensive to employ the surplus capital of the country. But worse results than we have yet seen must follow, unless the artificial propagation of Companies without inherent merit can be checked, and the solvency of the rest secured, by a reasonable amount of commercial suspicion.

#### PARISH HOSPITALS.

THE poor are often told, by those well-meaning persons who aim at making them contented with their lot by painting it a little brighter than nature, that during sickness, at any rate, they have the advantage of their wealthier neighbours, inasmuch as they can go to the hospital. Even within the very narrow limits where this theme of consolation holds good, its efficacy is immensely exaggerated. Though the fastidiousness of the poor man is quite a different thing from the fastidiousness of the rich man, it is just as acute in its own way, and even the very points in which the superiority of a hospital consists are seldom those which answer to his idea of comfort. But, besides this, the scope of the common-place is further narrowed by the smallness of the area within which it is applicable at all. In London, and other large towns, the great hospitals certainly place at the command of their inmates all the resources of the highest medical skill and the utmost perfection of sanitary arrangement. But even where the admission to these institutions is only regulated by the comparative claim of the need which demands it, the boon is confined, by the inexorable restrictions of space, to those cases which are most urgent where all are pressing. And the constitution of a majority of hospitals introduces the further limitation of a subscriber's recommendation—a system which necessarily tends in some degree to give a preference to the pensioners of the wealthier classes. The great mass of ordinary sickness among the poor never finds an entrance into a hospital ward; and every London clergyman, or district visitor, or Sister of Charity, could tell us of numbers of patients who have to recover as best they can amidst the unavoidable discomforts of squalid and crowded dwellings. It is true, indeed, that besides the charitable foundations there is an infirmary, or at least a sick ward, attached to every workhouse. But for these pauperism, and not merely poverty, is a necessary qualification; and even if this were relaxed, there is a general aversion on the part of the sick to the workhouse method of cure, which, in the face of many recent revelations and a few recent coroners' inquests, is, to say the least, perfectly intelligible. If we wish to understand the real condition of the diseased poor, we must dismiss from our minds the exceptional cases which are treated in any corporate fashion, whether good or bad, and keep in view the far greater number who remain from first to last in their own homes.

At first sight, perhaps, this state of things does not seem altogether unsatisfactory. To be at home is something, it may be thought, even to the poorest; and the unavoidable coldness and routine of a large hospital is but an indifferent substitute for the personal attention of friends and relatives. But the ordinary considerations which apply to the care of the sick are largely modified, where the poor are concerned, by purely physical causes. No extent of affection can supply the place of quiet, and well-cooked food, and pure air; and where these requisites are absolutely unattainable, the best-intentioned nursing will fail of its proper purpose. We may be allowed to hope that the senses of the poor become blunted by use to the presence of disagreeable objects, but the pain of illness must always be aggravated by the noise of crying children, and the restlessness of fever by the stifling heat of a back garret or a country cottage. Nor is it only that the aggregate of suffering is thus increased; the chance of recovery is diminished in the same proportion. Medical science tends more and more to the conclusion that the most important part of all that the doctor can effect is to keep off disturbing or aggravating influences from his patient, so as to give nature a fair chance of doing her best. Where, therefore, instead of this protective process, there is a kind of organized grouping round the patient's bed of all the elements which can irritate and annoy him, the curative virtue might almost as well be extracted from the medicines before they are administered. Indeed, if doctors had to choose between physic and nursing—using the latter term in that modern sense which includes everything connected with the treatment of the sick except drugs and surgical operations—probably most of them would give the preference to nursing as the most really essential to recovery, and it is this half of the process which it is so impossible for the poor to obtain at home. There are other considerations involved, too, in this question, besides those of pure benevolence. It needs only intelligent self-interest to see how largely our national wellbeing depends on keeping down pauperism, and

among the accidental causes of pauperism illness holds a foremost place. If it attacks the husband, it brings with it absence from work, loss of wages, and consequent debt. If it attacks the mother, it entails neglect of her children, and a certain depression of the household in respect of cleanliness and comfort. If it attacks only the youngest child, it still acts as a drain on the weekly income, and perhaps lays the foundation of future ill-health. Every one of these evils increases in a kind of geometrical progression, according to the time which it endures; and in this way that additional length of illness which is caused solely by avoidable discomforts may be the precise factor which is responsible for all these results, and for the pauperism which is almost safe to follow upon them. Even this reckoning does not take into account the cases where recovery, instead of being delayed, is prevented, and where the naturally hard lot of a poor family is rendered harder by the widow having to support, as well as to take care of, her children, or by the father having to take care of, as well as to support, them. In the case of contagious diseases, one would think that self-interest, even without enlightenment, would be enough to convince people that the necessary spread of the evil from the contact of the sick with the healthy not only increases the amount of the original mischief, but may at any moment change its character and distribution, and turn it from a mere isolated attack to an epidemic which may devastate a neighbourhood. Alike in London and in many a country village, there is nothing wanted but a single case of typhus to give the disease a firm and persistent hold over the whole surrounding district.

It is usually the best policy to make the most of an existing class of remedies before attempting to devise new ones. But in respect of the evils with which we are dealing, this ordinary rule seems to be inapplicable. To found a new Bartholomew's or St. George's would be too vast an undertaking to be attempted without much thought and long preparation. And though, if successful, it would confer immense benefits upon a percentage of the poor who are now shut out from the existing hospitals either by want of room or want of interest, it would hardly meet the needs of that large class which an ordinary attack of illness is hardly sufficient to reduce to dependence upon charity. It is true, indeed, that no kind of almsgiving is open to so little objection as that which succours the sick; yet even here, much harm might be done by leading the ordinary working-man, who is in receipt of fair wages during health, to count as a certainty upon being supported by charity during illness. A habit of thrift is so important to the poor, as well from the forethought and independence which it implies as from the material benefits resulting from it, that the most benevolent scheme which tended to discourage a virtue so hard to practise in their circumstances would involve very serious counterbalancing disadvantages. In this respect workhouses, as at present constituted, stand on the same footing, while they have the further drawbacks that the poverty which may need relief in time of sickness is in no way distinguished from permanent pauperism, and that the method of treatment prevailing within the walls seems to be rather less calculated to promote recovery than that which would have been attainable at home. What is wanted is something less costly, though less complete, than the hospital; something more comfortable than the workhouse infirmary; something which may combine the principle of taking payment from those who can afford it with that of giving free assistance to those who have not the means to pay.

The *Times* of Wednesday last contained an extremely interesting description of a village hospital which has been in existence since 1859 in the parish of Cranley, in Surrey. Its establishment is owing to the exertions of a country surgeon, Mr. Napper, and the expenses are calculated on the most moderate scale possible. The building is "a simple cottage, provided rent-free by the vicar of the parish, fitted up with six beds, with a surgeon who visits every day and oftener when necessary, a nurse, and a general servant." The experience of six years enables Mr. Napper to say that a small house, "having on the ground floor a kitchen, scullery, sitting-room, and larder; and upstairs from four to six rooms, well ventilated," is all that is needed for the accommodation of eight patients; while in the way of furniture he stipulates only for "a kitchen-range, dresser, bath, easy-chair, clock, common tables and chairs, and iron bedsteads with horsehair mattresses and proper bed linen." The cost of furnishing his own hospital with its six beds was only 70*l.*, and, what seems more extraordinary, "the actual working expenses for the last year did not exceed 100*l.*" The funds are in part contributed by the patients themselves—the amount being estimated according to their means—and "the poor agricultural labourer willingly pays for the services rendered to him, and that to an extent which amounts to a full third of the entire expenses of the hospital." It seems to us that if something of this kind, on a proportionately larger scale, were set on foot in a London parish, it would exactly meet the requirements of the ordinary poor. Two or three houses with a communication between them would supply the necessary accommodation, and the rent, as well as a part of the working expenses, might be paid by charitable subscriptions. Hospitals have rarely found it difficult to obtain assistance; and in this case the nearness of the institution would bring its claims home to a large number of persons whose purses would be hardly open to a similar appeal from a distance. But many, it might be hoped, on the patients would be able to provide at least in part for themselves, either by a payment during their stay in the hospital, or, still better, perhaps, by an extension of the principle of a benefit society, by which a man, on paying a certain sum weekly during health,



should have a claim, during sickness, to a bed in the hospital when there was room, and to medical attendance at home in the event of no bed being vacant. Wherever an applicant was unavoidably unable to pay, he might be admitted gratuitously, though, if the benefit society plan were adopted, it would be necessary to restrict this privilege to very rare and exceptional cases. The funds supplied by charity would be better applied to supplementing the payments of those who were making a real effort to defray their own expenses, as well as to the discharge of those larger items of outlay, such as rent, which would require something in the nature of a permanent guarantee. If every large town parish were supplied with such an institution as this, the sufferings of disease would at all events not be made worse, nor the progress of recovery retarded, by the presence of avoidable discomforts. The great hospitals would remain for those more serious and difficult cases which they have special facilities for treating, and the cure of which possesses an educational and scientific, as well as a benevolent and economical importance; while the workhouse infirmaries—improved, let us hope, by the contact and example of the new institutions—would be reserved for sick paupers. Nor would the beneficent influence of the parish hospital be at an end immediately on the discharge of an inmate. For some time after a patient is well enough to return home he may need more attractive and more nourishing food than it is possible for him to obtain at home. Some efforts have already been made in different parts of London to supply this particular want; and the parish hospital might meet it on a larger and more organized scale, by including a convalescent's dinner table amongst the ordinary arrangements of the house. It is a special advantage of this scheme that there need be no large fund in hand to justify an attempt at its realization. Wherever a moderate-sized house can be provided, and a few hundred pounds guaranteed, the trial may easily be made; and we feel sure that the success which would attend it, and the improvement of the condition of the sick poor which would result from it, would, in a short time, be so conspicuous as to make a parish hospital as much a matter of course as a parish school.

#### THE RACING SEASON OF 1865.

II.

IN the last week of June, Newcastle-upon-Tyne held its meeting, at which Caller Ou, who had won the Northumberland Plate in the two previous years, ran within a neck of winning it for the third time. She was beaten by Brown Bread, a moderately good three-year-old, to whom she was giving 37 lbs. We may take this opportunity of saying farewell to this remarkable mare, who ran for the last time at York in August, and was again beaten by Brown Bread. Altogether she has run twelve times in the past season, and has won five Queen's Plates. Her last victory was at Nottingham, in July, where she beat Success, who had won the Liverpool Cup a month before. During the four seasons which have followed her triumph over Kettledrum in the St. Leger, she has travelled on almost all the railways, and galloped over almost all the race-courses, of England, and she has besides enjoyed abundant opportunities of becoming acquainted with the weather of the Irish Channel. Besides all the work which she did upon her own account, to her belongs the credit of having taught Blair Athol how to win his races, so that no animal living can be better able to appreciate the advice to "restand be thankful." The Stockbridge and Newmarket July Meetings are principally interesting for two-year-old races, which are more conveniently considered separately. It was hoped that Gladiateur might have met Ely for the Goodwood Cup, but although he was present and walked over for a race on the same day, his owner declined to risk his chance for the St. Leger by exposing him to what must necessarily have been a very severe struggle. The favourite for the Cup was Eltham, who had run third for the Derby, and won the Gold Vase at Ascot after a dead heat with Breeze. Ely was called upon to give 2 st. for the year to Eltham, and 7 lbs. to his old antagonist, Cambuscan; while he met General Peel—who, like himself, had incurred a penalty—on equal terms. He beat Cambuscan easily by two lengths, and everything else by a further distance. For the Drawing-room Stakes, Gladiateur met Longdown, who was placed fourth for the Derby, and, giving him 5 lbs., beat him in a canter by forty lengths. This performance shows what vast improvement Gladiateur must have made from two to three years old; for at Goodwood last year Longdown was a winner, and at Newmarket three months afterwards Gladiateur was his companion in defeat. The most important part of the performance in reference to the Goodwood Stakes is usually transacted before the race. It may suffice to mention that the winner was Suspicion. For the Brighton Cup, Ely did even better than at Goodwood, as he had now to carry 10 lbs. penalty, and, having to give more weight to Cambuscan, he beat him further. Among the beaten lot upon this occasion was Caller Ou. The early part of August was marked by the Claxton controversy, which grew out of a race at Huntingdon. The winner of this race, Claxton, was objected to as having been struck out a week before, and the stakes were awarded to the second horse, Suspicion; but the bets went to Claxton. The decision as to bets, after being violently controverted, was confirmed at Doncaster, and there is no doubt that this decision was correct, although it forcibly exemplifies the saying—*summum jus summa injuria*. At Wolverhampton, Christmas Carol was beaten by Attaché of his own year, and thus it

was shown that he had no chance of getting near Gladiateur in the St. Leger, although he had run second for the Derby. A new and possibly dangerous opponent for Gladiateur was, however, discovered at York, where Klarinska won both the Yorkshire Oaks and the Great Yorkshire Stakes with so much ease as to show that she is quite a first-class mare, although difficult to ride, and therefore uncertain in her performances. The York Cup, for which Ely walked over, was his last trophy, as he was unfortunately unable to appear at Doncaster, where the Cup would have been his if he could have come to fetch it. He has won cups during the season at Bath, Ascot, Goodwood, Brighton, and York, besides winning his race with Baragah at Ascot, and another race, which was a remarkably easy bargain, at Stockton. The only race he has lost was the first of the season at Newmarket, where Cambuscan beat him. It is remarkable that Yorkshire saw the beginning and the end of the career of this famous horse; for his first success was winning the Champagne Stakes at Doncaster in 1863, and his last was the walk-over for the York Cup in 1865.

Between York and Doncaster are held a great number of meetings which, besides their local interest, become successive centres of gossip and speculation on the St. Leger. There was less to talk about this year than usual; for whereas the year before a numerous party believed that General Peel could, on a second trial, defeat Blair Athol, few persons ventured to treat Gladiateur's victory as doubtful, supposing that he should come to the post fit and well. A rumour, which appears to have been to some extent well founded, of an accident to Gladiateur at exercise, did, indeed, suggest the possibility of the St. Leger becoming an open race; but this result, which would have caused extreme regret to everybody except the owners of horses likely to profit by it, was happily avoided. It was as nearly certain as anything of the kind can be that Gladiateur was the best horse that would run in the St. Leger, and that the next best was Regalia. The assertion that Archimedes was better than he showed himself in the Derby was supported by his winning two races at Goodwood and one at Brighton, being all the races for which he started between the Derby and the St. Leger. But it was reported early in September that Archimedes was amiss, and the cloud which hung over the prospect of his backers was not dispelled until the horse appeared, looking and going well, at exercise at Doncaster. The Duke, whose influenza kept him out of the Derby, had not run at all this year, so that many frequenters of the moor at Doncaster saw him for the first time when he took his morning gallop, and the impression which he made was not generally favourable. The only other horses of any pretension were Klarinska and Breadalbane. The St. Leger was not only won by Gladiateur, but it was "won with the greatest ease by three lengths," and the horse's distinct superiority to everything of his year was emphatically and cordially acknowledged by an assembly which is better qualified than any other to pronounce an opinion upon such a question. The reception of Count Lagrange and his horse at Doncaster was honourable to England and gratifying to France, and there can be no doubt that such an occurrence must have a good effect in promoting friendship between the two nations. In this respect it is probable that more good has been done upon the Turf than by any quantity of Great Exhibitions that have been, or could be, held. The horses behind Gladiateur in the St. Leger finished pretty nearly as might have been anticipated, except that Klarinska ran away with Challoner at starting, and destroyed her chance. After Regalia, who was second, came Archimedes, The Duke, and Breadalbane, in the order named. Two days later, Gladiateur won the Doncaster Stakes against Breadalbane, without being in the least affected by the 10 lbs. penalty which he carried for winning the St. Leger. Count Lagrange declined to start his horse for the Doncaster Cup; and, as Ely was unable to appear, the race, which was won by Ackworth, was probably the least interesting of the series of Cup races which Doncaster has seen. If, indeed, Gladiateur and Ely had met on that last day at Doncaster, the spectators of their strife would have had something to remember. But the fearfully hard ground furnished a good reason for declining to run a valuable horse in two races on the same day, and, in choosing between the Doncaster Stakes and Cup, Count Lagrange might reasonably prefer the more valuable of the two prizes. If Gladiateur should be kept in training, it would be time enough for him to look after cups next year. It seems that Klarinska's runaway gallop in the St. Leger was enough, upon such ground, to last her for some time; for, after a careful trial on Friday morning, under the personal supervision of John Scott, it was determined not to start her for the Park Hill Stakes, which were won by Lord Glasgow's White Duck. We may infer, from circumstances into which it is unnecessary to enter, that Klarinska would not have been allowed to decline this contest if she had been at all fit for it. The Champagne Stakes produced, as usual, one of the most important two-year-old races of the season, and we shall often hear of the dead heat between Lord Lyon and Redan in connection with the chances of this year's Derby.

The most noteworthy event of the Newmarket First October Meeting was the match over a mile between The Duke and Archimedes. The latter was made favourite on the strength of his getting placed third to the former's fourth in the St. Leger, but The Duke, who is undoubtedly a great horse at this distance, had the best of the race all the way, and won by three lengths. At the Second October Meeting, Breadalbane ran over the same distance the best race that he has ever run. He was opposed by Sydmonter, of his own year, whose numerous performances entitle

him to rank among the very best of second-class horses. Syd-  
monton has started during the season for fourteen races, and has  
won eight of them. One of his best performances was running  
second to Ackworth's third at Stockbridge, over two miles,  
when Ackworth, who afterwards won the Doncaster Cup, was  
only giving him 10 lbs. for a year. Yet when he met Breadal-  
bane, who was giving him 11 lbs., he was beaten in a canter by  
four lengths. It may be true that Breadalbane is a "miller,"  
while Sydmonton likes a longer course; but still it is dif-  
ficult to deny that this race, which was over the Two Thou-  
sand course, shows a great improvement in Breadalbane  
since the Two Thousand day. The efficacy of handicapping, in  
putting bad and good horses upon equal terms, was strongly shown  
in the Cesarewitch, where Regalia was stopped by 8 st. 9 lbs.,  
which was 34 lbs. more than was carried by the winner, Sal-  
pinctes, of her own year; and still more in the Cambridgeshire,  
where Gladiateur vainly tried to carry 9 st. 12 lbs. to the front  
through deep mud, and up a severe hill. The British public does  
not always take to a favourite very promptly, but it will stick to  
him, when adopted, with marvellous pertinacity. An excellent  
judge of racing made a great effort to see Gladiateur run for the  
Cambridgeshire, saying that if he only read in the newspapers that he  
had won, without seeing the race, he should not believe it. If the  
horse had not started, his infatuated backers would have declared  
that they had been robbed, and so perhaps it was better that he  
should start; but still we could have wished that a three-year-old  
career of invincibility should not have ended in defeat, even though  
it were merely nominal. During the season Gladiateur either won  
or walked over in nine races, but he was unplaced in the tenth and  
last. He carried more than half as much again as the winner,  
Gardeviure, of his own year, whose performance, if not great in  
itself, is valuable, because Lord Lyon, who is in the same stable,  
can be tried with her. Thus we take leave of the winner of the  
last Derby, and conjecture will soon be busy in looking for the  
winner of the next.

## REVIEWS.

### THE IDEAS OF THE DAY ON POLICY.\*

THE plan of Mr. Buxton's book is at the same time modest and  
original. The ideas, or general reasons for political action,  
which he undertakes to record are those which practically influ-  
ence popular or Parliamentary opinion. "The aim of this book  
is not to show what men may think, or ought to think, but what  
they are actually now thinking, in England." Although it is in  
some instances easy to discover the leaning of Mr. Buxton's judg-  
ment, he has stated with exemplary fairness, in the simplest form,  
the broad grounds of argument on both sides in all the principal  
controversies of the day. His object is to furnish a contribution  
to history, and not on the present occasion to share in discussion.  
Although a book consisting of numbered paragraphs is not unlikely  
to repel readers who are in search of amusement, there is much  
ingenuity in the project of collecting the statistics of debates, of  
leading articles, and of political conversation. Mr. Buxton  
deserves credit for a remarkable conciseness, which indicates  
careful selection. If he had devoted less time to his collection of  
ideas, the book would have been proportionally longer. One of  
the many advantages of brevity is that, by suggesting omission,  
it stimulates the mind to supply apparent deficiencies. When  
Mr. Buxton enumerates five reasons for abolishing the Irish  
Church, and four for supporting it, the first impression pro-  
duced is that there is much more to be said on at least  
one side of the question. Maturer consideration would re-  
duce the number of proposed additions to the list, by showing  
that many propositions consisting of different terms are similar  
or identical. Nearly all arguments against the Irish Establish-  
ment may be reduced to the heads which are stated by Mr.  
Buxton. That the State ought not to uphold any Church;  
that it ought not to uphold the Church of a small minority;  
that misapplied endowments may be rightfully diverted from their  
present destination; that the alleged transfer of Church property  
from Catholics to Protestants was unjust; and that the Irish  
Church is distasteful to the people; are texts which, taken  
separately or in conjunction, sufficiently represent the substance of  
almost all discourses against the Irish Establishment. On the  
other side, Mr. Buxton has, perhaps deliberately, omitted the  
theory that the corporate identity of the ancient Irish Church is  
preserved in the Anglican, rather than in the Romanist, suc-  
cession. Perhaps it was consistent to maintain a distinction  
between ideas, or grounds of conviction, and forensic arguments  
which may be used for purposes of contention. Men form their  
opinions on all subjects with but little reference to the  
plausible reasons which they afterwards use in proselytism  
or apology. A few thoughtful minds analyse impressions  
or conjectures under an instinctive feeling that truth, though  
it may be originally apprehended in a concrete form, ought to  
stand the test of logical statement. In a majority of cases,  
the process of examination confirms, rightly or wrongly, the first  
bent of opinion; but it often happens that an error is exposed as  
soon as it is put into a definite shape. Prejudgment degenerates  
into prejudice when it rejects inquiry or when it survives confuta-

tion. The mass of mankind, having neither inclination nor leisure  
to think for themselves, depend for a supply of arguments on the  
advocates who conduct public controversy. Bigots listen only to  
the disputants on their own side; but, in the long run, discussion  
promotes the adoption of sound conclusions. The "ideas of the day  
on policy" are elaborated in the form of arguments, embodied in  
metaphors and expanded into platitudes bulky enough for general  
digestion, until public opinion is ripe for an intelligent decision.  
In the meantime Mr. Buxton performs a service to science by  
classifying innumerable phrases and doctrines under their re-  
spective descriptions of species and genus. As he justly says,  
it is as good to collect ideas as to collect butterflies, beetles, or  
snakes. The analogy, however, is imperfect; for political ideas, in  
his sense of the word, correspond rather to classes than to in-  
dividual specimens.

The plan of Mr. Buxton's work may be understood from his  
summary of the "formative ideas which are at work in the  
national mind" on the question of Reform:—

The ideas prevalent among those who demand household or manhood  
suffrage seem to be as follows:—

1. The principle that every man who belongs to a commonwealth has a  
right to share in the management of its affairs. He has a just claim to a  
voice in the passing of its laws; in the healing of its grievances; in the  
choice of its rulers; in deciding whether it should make war, and what steps  
it should take for its defence. He cannot rightfully be deprived of control  
over matters which touch his own wellbeing so strongly. Surely, he at  
least may ask to help in choosing who shall control them.
2. The idea that this right is forfeited by pauperism and by crime. The  
man who is either useless or baneful to the commonwealth has no right to  
handle its affairs.
3. The idea that the upper classes gain, or think they gain, while the  
lower classes lose, by national outlay. Hence manhood suffrage would  
cheapen government.
4. The idea that the gift of political power to the working-classes would  
strengthen their character, and, further, would enhance their dignity.
5. The idea that universal suffrage would lower the aristocracy.

The ideas which induce the Liberal party to advocate the partial  
admission of the working-classes to the franchise, and the ideas of  
the opponents of Parliamentary Reform, are exhibited in an equally  
compendious shape. If the reasons or ideas were new, they would  
suit Mr. Buxton's purpose as little as a catalogue of hothouse  
plants assists the collector of an indigenous *Flora*. His aim  
is attained if his summary is exhaustive, for he is secure against the  
charge of superfluity and repetition. If his book were a generation  
old, it would have a curious historical interest. It is easy to  
remember or to devise numerous arguments for and against  
Catholic Emancipation or the Reform Bill, especially as Lord  
Russell has again and again expatiated on all the great Liberal  
measures of his time as successive illustrations of the great Whig  
principle which he represents. Although the boast is substantially  
well-founded, it would be a mistake to suppose that the popular  
reasons for Reform in the present day are precisely the same which  
influenced the Ministers of 1831, or that Lord Grey and his col-  
leagues shared all the opinions held forty years before by Mr. Pitt  
and the Duke of Richmond. The historian of ideas of Lord  
Liverpool's day would have noted a prevailing belief, among the  
friends of emancipation, that the teeth of the old Popish lion had  
long since been drawn, and that it was absurd to maintain against  
his dotage the precautions which the most orthodox Whigs had  
deemed indispensable in his prime. Popular writers and speakers  
incessantly ridiculed the suggestion that a Roman Catholic gentle-  
man would cherish his obsolete prejudices, except on a point of  
honour which rendered it impossible that he should abandon a  
persecuted creed. Many years afterwards, the Whigs adopted the  
absurd clamour against the so-called Papal Aggression, through a  
feeling of irritation caused by the gradual discovery that the  
Roman Catholic Church was not a subordinate section of the  
English Liberal party. The wisdom of emancipation has been  
fully justified by experience, but, although the measure had always  
been advocated by the most enlightened politicians, their special  
opinions were often less wise than their object and their policy.  
The fools, as Lord Melbourne acknowledged, were more fortunate  
than the sensible men in the success of their prophecy that Roman  
Catholics would, in or out of Parliament, endeavour to promote  
the interests of their Church.

Many of the ladders which, as Mr. Buxton shows, are now  
placed against the citadel of political truth will prove hereafter to  
have been short or unsteady, although the ascent will nevertheless  
have been accomplished. One idea, however, will inspire resist-  
ance to innovation as long as there is an institution to preserve.  
The conviction that, in the majority of cases, it is desirable to let  
well alone is equally applicable to almost every political contra-  
versy. The implied assumption that whatever exists is tolerably  
good is, in ordinary times, not repugnant to English habits of  
thought. Mr. Buxton, however, justly remarks a growing dispo-  
sition to deprecate arbitrary interference rather than legislative  
change. The greatest advance in political sagacity which has been  
effected in England is the recognition of the general rule that it is  
right, if possible, to dispense with artificial rules, and to let nature  
alone. There is strong reason to suppose that all kinds of business  
will be most advantageously transacted by those who are imme-  
diately concerned. The general doctrine has been popularized by  
the almost universal acquiescence of Englishmen in its application  
to the process of buying and selling. Free-trade is founded on the  
late though obvious discovery that, in the great majority of cases,  
both vendors and purchasers make profitable bargains. The re-  
laxation of the control which the Mother-country formerly  
exercised over the Colonies has been introduced partly through

\* *The Ideas of the Day on Policy.* By C. Buxton, M.P. London: John  
Murray. 1865.



considerations of selfishness or prudence, but it also indicates a belief that one community undertakes a mischievous and thankless task when it undertakes to govern another. The prevalence of sound economic theories tends, by direct operation as well as by analogy, to promote a corresponding system of political practice. Colonies were once valued chiefly as exclusive markets or sources of supply. Since the abandonment of protective duties, there is no commercial advantage in the multiplication of dependencies. M. de Lamartine, in common with less celebrated apologists of the Mexican expedition, urges the expediency of establishing French influence in a country which produces gold and cotton and sugar. The most illiterate English trader knows that, when he requires foreign goods, he must buy them, and that the price of his imports would not be diminished if every port in America and Asia were occupied by an English garrison. If a man wants a loaf, it is a roundabout proceeding to bring an action of ejectment against the baker.

Mr. Buxton proposes, on a future occasion, to resolve the political ideas of the two great parties into the principles on which they depend. According to his judgment there is "perfect unity in the Liberal, and again in the Tory, creed"; but he will probably admit that the party which habitually stands on the defensive silently modifies from time to time many of the articles of its faith. Liberalism has a large share, but not a monopoly, "of the original force, the fertility and vigour," which Mr. Buxton has, in the course of his researches, learned to attribute to the national mind. The new ideas, indeed, which, as he says, have shot forth in rich abundance, necessarily tend to innovation; but projects of change have been often successfully resisted by the aid of weapons which are equally new. Modern reformers are no longer encountered by appeals to the wisdom of ancestors, or by assumptions that the laws of the country are perfect, and that its traditional policy furnishes authoritative precedents for future guidance. Both parties refer to a common standard of expediency, and it not unfrequently happens that existing institutions are justified by the result of discussion. In his account of the causes which have led to the reform of the penal code, Mr. Buxton rightly attaches great importance to the doctrine that punishment ought to be adapted to the atrocity of the crime rather than to the necessity for suppressing it. The sound principle that justice is regulated and authorized revenge, though it is seldom consciously apprehended, exercises a constantly increasing influence on criminal legislation. Although the chief agents in mitigating the severity of the old law shared the political opinions of Sir Samuel Romilly and Mr. Fowell Buxton, the vindication of natural justice as the foundation of penal law belongs properly to the party of resistance. When judges told horse-stealers that they must be hanged that horses might not be stolen, they were driven to invent a fallacy because they could offer no satisfactory defence for an obviously unjust law. Unosophisticated minds always fully believed that the reason for putting a murderer to death was not so much that peaceful subjects must be protected, as that it served him right. The theorists who explain and defend an ancient popular conviction are so far to be classified as conservative.

The fertility and vigour of the national mind, as they are exhibited in Mr. Buxton's collection of political opinions, are less remarkable than its general honesty and benevolence. In practice, error and injustice frequently occur; but the theories which determine the course of political parties are, with few exceptions, essentially equitable and unselfish. It is undoubtedly true that, in discussions of the laws which affect neutrals and belligerents, the rights of the commonwealth of nations are urged not less earnestly than the special interests of a ship-owning and trading community. A long time will elapse before the public morality of England attains ideal perfection, but meanwhile it is satisfactory to know that no statesman would be allowed to advocate open and deliberate wrong in domestic or foreign policy. The articles which disgrace the principal American papers, the Bonapartist speeches of M. Thiers, and the despatches of Count Bismark would be universally reprobated if they appeared in England. There is plausibility in the foreign imputation of national hypocrisy, but error is better than cynical professions of indifference to right.

In a short introductory chapter on judicial statesmanship Mr. Buxton touches on the vexed question whether zealous partisanship or many-sided impartiality is the more desirable quality in a politician. He scarcely conceals his own sympathy with "many thoughtful men who could not force themselves by any consideration, either of personal or even of higher motives, to take such a partisan course. Their natural impulse is uncontrollable to look all round each question; they feel perhaps even a keener delight in working their way among the ideas of their opponents, and placing themselves where they stand, than in building up argument after argument on their own side." In strict conformity with the habit of mind which he describes and admires, Mr. Buxton produces arguments to prove that thoroughgoing adherents of a party are, on the whole, more useful, and in a healthier mental condition, than philosophic observers. Consistent scepticism can go no further than to suspend its belief in itself. It may be that party passion furnishes the best security against indifference, and it is unnecessary to inquire further whether the remedy is worse than the disease. It is certain that catalogues of conflicting opinions would be useless and uninteresting to those who, having made up their own minds, are incurious as to the principles of their opponents. Able and active members of Parliament have no reason to be alarmed at their own imperfect capacity for prejudice

and injustice. When Boswell complained of his own excessive candour and honesty as disqualifications for success at the bar, Dr. Johnson consoled him by saying, "Don't be afraid, sir: in time you will make a very pretty rascal." A supporter of the Government, or a member of the Opposition, may confidently hope that experience will cure him of any morbid propensity to vote according to the merits of the question. Notwithstanding his early delight in working his way among the ideas of his opponents, in time he will make a very pretty Whig or Tory.

#### LA FAMILLE BENOITON.\*

THE remarkable absence of all wit and sparkle from M. Sardou's curiously successful comedy, and the scarcity even of that exquisitely light humour which makes most French comedies so agreeable, show that its popularity must be due simply to some substantial truthfulness which people recognise in it. The Court Jenkins reported that, when the piece was played at Compiègne, upon its conclusion the Empress avoided going into the room where the author was awaiting the august congratulations, because she could not admit that the play was in any way a true representation of a French family, and she did not choose to hurt the author's feelings by giving him a piece of the Imperial mind. Perhaps the full houses and prolonged run at the Vaudeville may console the author for the coolness of the Court. The appeal from Cæsar and those of Cæsar's household to the sovereign people has had a triumphant result. And this could scarcely have been the case if the Empress's opinion had been altogether just. The public of Paris must feel that the extravagance, the passion for speculation, the monstrous fashions of female attire, and the disruption of the domestic sentiments, all of which are the objects of M. Sardou's disgust, are truthfully and justly represented as the prominent characteristics of the time. People will only accept comedy without wit or much humour when they are satisfied that the foibles and follies which it hits—heavily instead of lightly—really exist, and really deserve to be hit. Still one must feel that there is some ground for the view which the Empress is said to have taken. The Benoiton family and their exploits are visibly overdone. Of course it is necessary to paint the figures larger than life, and to crowd incidents rather more closely than is consistent with exact fidelity to the ordinary course of events. But M. Sardou has decidedly abused this prerogative of his craft. The play wants relief. We are surrounded too closely with the atmosphere of the vice and foolishness which the author is engaged in portraying. There is no by-plot, no suggestive incidental contrast, either of character or conduct. It is like reading a piece of a Byzantine historian, in which the whole picture is painted in some one half-dead half-lurid tone. Only the historian can scarcely be expected to escape from the overwhelming influence of his time. The dramatist, on the contrary, is an inventor; and as he is at liberty, so it is his duty, to throw light and shade into his work. He has no business to let his indignation against folly possess him to such a pitch that he can see nothing but folly in life. This is the position to which M. Sardou appears to have come. He sees everything through a single medium, and has no eye for anything but the reckless expenditure and the hideous costumes of women, the sordid money-greediness of men, the destroyed domesticity of modern life. Besides this prime defect in the general composition of his piece, he commits the same kind of sin in the conception of every individual character. He evinces no sense of the subtleties of character, and gives us no glimpse of finer traits. To people of a critical mind, and with artistic taste and judgment, this makes his play rather disgusting. One gets wearied of so much monotony and so much exaggeration combined. They take the play out of the domain of true comedy, and send it down to the lower region of burlesque and farce. And it is not bright witty burlesque, because perhaps M. Sardou is too angrily in earnest, which is emphatically a wrong temper in which to compose burlesque, or even comedy. Molière, the prince of all comedy writers, was angry with the follies of his day, but not too angry to be able to see the humorous side of them all. He justly made the end of comedy to be the improvement of men, but "*en les amusant*." M. Sardou rather overlooks the latter clause of the definition, and probably he himself thinks the evil too serious to find any fun in it.

The Benoiton family are given up to the spirit of the time. The girls talk horrible slang, bet, waste a fortune in dress, change their attire a dozen times a day, and each time don something more outrageous than before. Of the two sons, one is at college, talks worse slang than his sisters, smokes incontinently in all sorts of improper circumstances, tries to get up intrigues with actresses, and takes a slight interest in the share-market. The other, between six and seven years old, is amazingly impudent, and also takes a keen interest in shares, he and a number of children of like age having set up a miniature Bourse, where they speculate in postage stamps. Fanfan is rather an acute operator in this miniature market. "Papa told me one day"—he recounts one of his most successful achievements—"that the Federalists were victorious; so off I go to the Bourse. I buy all the Southern in the market, against my English and Italian stock. Baby Lasalle, who wasn't in the secret, cried, 'Is he turned ninny, this Fanfan, to go and buy up all the Southern like this?' But, at half-past four, who had the head when they found out that there were no more Confederate stamps? So then, of

\* *La Famille Benoiton*, Comédie en Cinq Actes. Par Victorien Sardou. Neuvième Édition. Paris: Michel Lévy. 1865.

course, I sold all mine at a tremendous profit. They were in a fine passion, the others, I can tell you!" Surely we may agree with his admiring father—*c'est assez gentil, comme début*. Of course Fanfan has been expressly trained in this sweet precocity, for M. Benoiton is a firm believer in the maxim that as the twig is bent the tree is inclined. He has been quite as careful in instilling sound principles into the minds of his daughters. Before they were fifteen years old they had acquired a thoroughly wholesome idea of marriage by his admirable care. "I used to show them," he says with just pride, "a well-dressed woman in the street, in a fine carriage, with a fine shawl, and I used to say, 'My dear daughters, what is that lady?' 'She's a lady, papa, who has made a good match,' and thus the idea of a good match has become inseparable, in their minds, from lace and velvets and equipages." That the lesson is not thrown away may be gathered from the calmness with which Camille, one of the daughters, tells her suitor plainly that "he is not particularly unpleasant to her, but he is not rich enough for her," and in reply to his renewed entreaties, exclaims, "If you had only five-and-twenty thousand a year!" Another daughter marries a rich contractor, who is so thoroughly engrossed in his affairs that he never is a single moment in his wife's company. Somebody warns him that this is exposing her to great temptation, and the contractor, understanding the situation, seeks his wife with intense repentance, and a hot desire to live a more domestic and affectionate life. The interview between them makes an excellent scene. For some time the wife has no conception what her husband's effusive language can possibly mean. After he has been pouring forth his protestations of love, of repentance for his past neglect, and of an intention to turn over a new leaf, she begins to melt. "So then, *mon ami*, we shan't see you what you have been for some time, and doing what sits so ill upon you?" The husband is charmed, and asks what it is that he has been, but suddenly cools when she answers him caressingly, "Rather shabby about my expenses." The dialogue is continued with a great deal of spirit. The husband tries to get her into his own tender frame of mind, and to persuade her of the necessity of a kinder and more affectionate life; while she, with ingenious obstinacy, persists in thinking that the only reform needed to make them both as happy as the day is long is an enlargement of pin-money. The end is a bitter quarrel. The wretched contractor is infuriated at the callous heartlessness of his wife, while she is confirmed in her contempt for his meanness in money matters, for which she thinks his tender words are only a shabby pretext. Besides their extravagance and their slang, an almost equally objectionable qualification of the daughters of M. Benoiton is their familiarity with the names and appearance of all the leading improper characters of Paris. The fast brother tells his sister that he has been with some ladies. "Ah, with some ladies?" "Oh, a heap of them!—Mini Taptape, Cascadette, Bébé J't'en Fiche, et Tata Rigolo." The profession of a lady called Bébé J't'en Fiche need not be specified. On another occasion a gentleman is presented to one of the daughters, and she instantly cries out that she has seen him before. After some perplexity at last she has it. "Oh, yes, I remember; you were in the box next to ours along with Miss . . . Miss . . . what do you call her? the one with such pretty bright hair, and *un nom de bijou*." The cavalier is a good deal confused, and admits that he was there with the lady. "Comme bijoutier," says his companion jocosely, who goes on to ask whether the little improper lady's hair is all her own. "Certainly, I assure you that she paid for it." The wit of the cavalier's reply is scarcely very new, and it belongs to a kind to which no good comedy-writer condescends.

The funniest and, at the same time, the most outrageously-exaggerated of all the characters is one Prudent Formichel, who is intended for a type of the modern youth of business. But he is funny only because he is so exaggerated. The stage account of him is that he must be "mis irréprochablement, roide, froid, *genre Anglais*." England is the youth's pattern country. "Mais ce Londres, cette Tamise! La Seine auprès a l'air d'un ruisseau. Et les docks! et les chemins de fer partout, sous les pieds, sur la tête! . . . Ah, si j'ai un regret c'est bien de ne pas être Anglais!" Then he turns to somebody else. "And Birmingham, with its factories of pins and needles, of steel pens, and papier maché! And Manchester, with its thirty-five thousand spindles which turn more than two million looms! And Liverpool, with its soap-works! Twenty-five million kilogrammes of soap a year—it's sublime, madame; it was there that I truly felt all the pride of human power—there, at the sight of all that soap." This is very flattering, certainly, but on the whole M. Prudent is not a nice character. He asks M. Benoiton for the hand of one of his daughters. He has barely seen her, but is of opinion that her portion would be very useful to him in his business. He does not dissemble this view for a moment; and he says at once to M. Benoiton that they are not there to gather daisies, but to carry out the principles which guide his life. Having taken out his memorandum-book, he first ascertains what M. Benoiton proposes to give. "And then for expectations?" It seems that there is an aunt. "Infirm—old—decrepit?" asks Prudent tentatively. He is told that she is half in the grave, and will leave so much among the whole Benoiton family. Prudent rapidly ascertains the amount of each share, and books it. "So then, Madlle. Lucile, I mean Camille, is worth a hundred and twenty thousand francs, plus what she'll get at your death." M. Benoiton rather deprecates any allusion to such a subject, but Prudent is inexorable. "Let's see—from fifty to fifty-five, your age, eh?" M. Benoiton is fifty-seven. "Ah, that's fifteen years to wait!" M. Benoiton hastily and uncomfortably asks what this

means. But Prudent, without paying the slightest attention to him, runs over a calculation of his own. "Or stop! neck thick; face congested! Well, put him at fifteen years; that'll square with my figures. I quadruple my capital; four times seven, twenty-eight—two million eight hundred thousand francs, plus your inheritance, two hundred thousand—three millions. Then I have two children, not one more! a boy to begin with, then a girl—the boy civil engineer, the girl good to marry. Then I get the fortune of my father here—two millions more. I settle my son, and I settle my daughter. Three and two, five; of this one goes to them, and I have my four millions exact. If it suits you, my dear sir, the bargain is done." The two papas are not so fascinated. They prefer luncheon before settling the affair—"ce massacre! ça jette un froid dans l'estomac!" M. Prudent a little time afterwards cheats his father by selling him, as in good condition, a house which falls to pieces a day or two after, as M. Prudent well knew it would. When reproached with his scandalously unfilial conduct, he gravely rebukes his sire for confounding the Father with the Purchaser. All this is really very funny, but it is the fun of caricature. Most of the spring and grace and levity of the best modern French comedy is wanting in *La Famille Benoiton*, and caricature, however good, is but a poor compensation. And, worst of all, we don't feel that the author is enjoying the joke with us. One of the strangest jests in the piece is the fact that Madame Benoiton never appears in it on any occasion whatever. Her husband and her children repeatedly ask for her, but the uniform answer is that "*Madame est sortie*." At the very close of the fifth act, after all the turmoil of the piece is over, the juvenile operator in Confederate postage stamps rushes in exclaiming that his mother is coming. Everybody expresses great excitement, and they all await her with impatience; but Fanfan returns in a minute or two with the news that Mamma has gone out again—she had only come back for a moment to get her parasol, which she had forgotten. The utter indifference of which the writer accuses French mothers could hardly have received a more original or ingenious illustration.

#### LORD CLARENDON'S LIFE.\*

WE made some remarks not very long ago on Lord Clarendon's *History of the Rebellion*. His autobiography—which is partly supplementary to, and partly a continuation of, his more famous work—throws a good deal of additional light on the character of the author and on the age in which he lived. There are three principal periods which the memoirs illustrate. First, the early part of his life, down to the meeting of the Long Parliament (birth, 18th February, 1609, to November, 1640). Secondly, some parts of the history of the Long Parliament and the civil war, and of the residence of Charles II. abroad (1640—1660). Thirdly, the Restoration, the early years of Charles II.'s reign (1660—1667), and the six years which Clarendon passed in banishment, until his death on December 9th, 1673.

The first period is much the most entertaining. Clarendon was not industrious in his youth. He learnt very little at College, where indeed he was a mere boy; and his life as a law student "was without great application to the study of the law for some years, it being then a time when the town was full of soldiers. . . . And he had gotten into the acquaintance of many of those officers, which took up too much of his time for one year." He read some "polite literature and history," however, and, as he remarked in his old age, "lived *caute* if not *casté*." He had, however, the means of seeing good society. He was connected by marriage with the family of the Marquis of Hamilton, and he was brought very early in his career into business of importance. In particular, he vindicated before the Privy Council the rights of the merchants of London in a dispute which affected the revenue; and, in consequence of his management of the case, he was introduced to Archbishop Laud. His professional success and distinction put him in very pleasant circumstances. "He grew every day in practice, of which he had as much as he desired; and, having a competent estate of his own, he enjoyed a very pleasant and a plentiful life, living much above the rank of those lawyers whose business was only to be rich, and was generally beloved and esteemed by most persons of condition and great reputation." His account of these pleasant days is by far the most interesting passage of his writings. It is composed of characters of Ben Jonson, Selden, Sir Kenelm Digby, May, the historian of the Long Parliament, Lord Falkland, Waller the poet, Sheldon, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, Hales, Chillingworth, and some others of less note. The accounts of Falkland and Chillingworth are memorable passages in English literature, and deserve to be described as portraits of the highest excellence. The other characters are rather collections of remarks than pictures. Clarendon's *History* and his *Memoirs* are full of interest, but their interest is that of the conversation of an experienced public man, who was, besides, one of the strongest of all conceivable partisans. It is not the interest of a work of art. Moreover, his extreme gravity and stateliness, though it allowed him to be sarcastic and occasionally

\* *The Life of Edward, Earl of Clarendon, Lord High Chancellor of England, and Chancellor of the University of Oxford*. Containing, 1. An Account of the Chancellor's Life from his Birth to the Restoration in 1660; 2. A Continuation of the same, and of his History of the Great Rebellion from the Restoration to his Banishment in 1667. Written by Himself. Oxford: 1761.



humorous, prevented him from devising any of those pointed vigorous expressions which, as Mr. Carlyle says of some of Mirabeau's, make a complete portrait in three scratches and a dot. This renders his portraits far less amusing than they would otherwise have been, and in some respects less instructive. That Clarendon's partisanship continually blinded his judgment is painfully obvious. This appears strikingly in the worship which he lavished on Charles I.; but he partially redeems his fault by his views of the Stuart family in general, and of Charles II. in particular. His account of him and his brother is an admirable specimen of the sarcastic vein which he sometimes indulged in:—

It was the unhappy fate of that family that they trusted naturally the judgments of those who were as much inferior to them in understanding as they were in quality. . . . They were too much inclined to like men at first sight, and did not love the conversation of men of many more years than themselves, and thought age not only troublesome but impertinent. They did not love to deny, and less to strangers than to their friends; not out of bounty or generosity, which was a flower that did never grow naturally in the heart of either of the families—that of Stuart or the other of Bourbon—but out of an unskillfulness and defect in the countenance; and when they prevailed with themselves to make some pause rather than to deny, importunities removed all resolution, which they knew not how to shut out nor defend themselves against, even when it was evident enough that they had much rather not consent. . . . If the Duke seemed more fixed and firm in his resolutions, it was rather from an obstinacy in his will than from the constancy of his judgment.

A delightful character, from the most faithful servant and most zealous partisan that ever any family had.

We get, however, from Clarendon a very pleasing notion of his early friends. Perhaps the most characteristic point about them is their great intellectual activity, and the extraordinary degree of learning that some of them attained to. Falkland appears to have formed a kind of centre for the whole party, when he was little over twenty; and the well-known passage in which his pursuits are described is so beautiful that we transcribe it:—

His whole conversation was one continued *convivium philosophicum* or *convivium theologicum*, cultivated and refreshed with all the facetiousness of wit and good humour, and pleasantness of discourse, which made the argument itself (whatever it was) very delectable. His house, where he usually resided (Tew or Burford, in Oxfordshire), being within ten or twelve miles of the University, looked like the University itself, by the company that was always found there. There were Dr. Sheldon, Dr. Morley, Dr. Hammond, Dr. Earles, Mr. Chillingworth, and indeed all men of eminent parts and faculties at Oxford, besides those who resorted thither from London; who all found their lodgings there as ready as in the colleges; nor did the lord of the house know of their coming or going, nor who were in his house, till he came to dinner or supper, where all still met; otherwise there was no troublesome ceremony or constraint to forbid men to come to the house, or to make them weary of staying there; so that many came thither to study in a better air, finding all the books they could desire in his library, and all the persons together whose company they could wish, and not find in any other society. Here Mr. Chillingworth wrote and formed and modelled his excellent book against the learned Jesuit Mr. Knott, after frequent debates upon the most important particulars.

Lord Falkland's own studies were remarkable:—

There were very few classic authors in the Greek or Latin tongue that he had not read with great exactness; he had read all the Greek and Latin fathers, all the most allowed and authentic ecclesiastical writers, and all the Councils, with wonderful care and observation; for in religion he thought too careful and too curious an inquiry could not be made amongst those whose purity was not questioned—

and whose authority was appealed to on both sides. The sentence meanders on for thirteen lines more, which we spare our readers; but this is what it comes to. This passage—to which other well-known facts correspond—as, for instance, the prodigious learning of Selden, and the curiously minute acquaintance with all the details of English history which was shown in the great Parliamentary debates of the period, and of which Mr. Forster's *Life of Eliot* supplies numerous illustrations—raises the question whether men in those days were more energetic and industrious than in our own. To discuss it at length would lead us far from our present subject, but Clarendon's *Life* throws some light upon the matter. There would seem to have been hardly any light literature in those days, plays excepted; and the common subjects of education were fewer than at present. Falkland, for instance, who was carefully educated at Dublin, knew no Greek till he taught it himself long afterwards. Clarendon learnt French only during his second exile, "not," he says, "towards speaking it, the defect of which he found many conveniences in, but for the reading any books." A man might get through a great deal of reading if there were no circulating library works, no periodical literature, and only one language besides his own, or at most two, which he had any occasion to understand.

Next to his own immediate friends, the most interesting personages described in the early part of Clarendon's *Life* are Archbishop Laud and Clarendon himself. He was very fond of Laud; he "had so great an affection and reverence for his memory" that he "believed him to be a man of the most exemplar virtue and piety of any of that age." Laud took notice of him as he was just rising into large business at the Bar, and when life in general must have looked very bright to him; and probably some of the rays of that brightness fell upon the Archbishop. The only fault that he could, or would, see in him was the roughness of his manner. Clarendon probably secretly liked him all the better for defects which he was conscious of not sharing, though he had a certain tendency towards them, corrected by education. Of Laud he observes, in a well-known passage:—

It is the misfortune of most persons of that education (how worthy soever) that they have rarely friendships with men above their own condition, and that their ascent being commonly sudden from low to high, they have afterwards rather dependants than friends, and are still deceived by keeping

somewhat in reserve to themselves even from those with whom they seem most openly to communicate, and, which is worse, receive for the most part their informations and advertisements from clergymen who understand the least, and take the worst measure of human affairs of all mankind that can write and read.

It is easy to trace in this celebrated passage the inward satisfaction with which Clarendon contrasted his own social advantages with the somewhat narrow education of Laud. His own temper apparently had something of the same sort of roughness in it, for he continually boasts of his habitual plainness of speech. The following account of himself is one of the oddest passages that ever were written:—

He was in his nature inclined to pride and passion, and to a humour between wrangling and disputing, very troublesome; which good company in a short time so much reformed and mastered, that no man was more affable and courteous to all kinds of persons; and they who knew the great infirmity of his whole family, which abounded in passion, used to say he had much extinguished the unruliness of that fire. That which supported and rendered him generally acceptable was his generosity (for he had too much a contempt of money), and the opinion men had of the goodness and justice of his nature which was transcendent in him, in a wonderful tenderness and delight in obliging. His integrity was ever without blemish, and believed to be above temptation. He was firm and unshaken in his friendships; and though he had great candour towards others in the differences of religion, he was zealously and deliberately fixed in the principles both of the doctrine and discipline of the Church.

Few men have sung their own praises with such calm assurance. A person who says, "Upon mature reflection, I pronounce myself to be a man of transcendent goodness and justice, wonderful tenderness, unblemished integrity, a firm friend, and as candid as I am strict in my religious views," must really be a sort of phenomenon. In every part of his autobiography Clarendon shows a solid, deliberate admiration of himself, which it seems hardly fair to call vanity, because it is so calm and grave, but which, so far as we know, is unrivalled by any other writer.

The great blemish of the early part of the Memoirs is that they throw very little light either upon the logical groundwork of Clarendon's earlier life or on the nature of his change. Perhaps the most plausible guess—for, after all, it is little more than can be made—as to his frame of mind, is that he was one of the very few who clearly understood the nature of the struggle between the King and the Parliament, and took part emphatically and passionately for the King; and this although, in the earlier part of his career, he was as well aware as any one of the existence of great abuses which required a remedy. All study of that period leads to the conclusion that the real question was the question of sovereignty. Was the King or the Parliament to be the substantive or the adjective? Clarendon took the Royal side, perhaps, all the more warmly because he had sufficient faith in it to wish to reform collateral abuses, like the Courts of the Earl Marshal and those of the President of the North, and the Council of Wales. He appears really and honestly to have believed that it was an everlasting divine decree that the King and the Bishops should direct, substantially and really, all the temporal and spiritual affairs of the nation, and that it was in the highest degree morally wicked, and even impious, to try to alter this arrangement. Nothing is more difficult for us, at this distance of time, to realize than the view which in those days a man like Clarendon took of a man like Hampden. What Hampden thought of Clarendon we do not know, but Clarendon obviously considered Hampden as a wicked man, a rebel, a traitor, and a hypocrite. In a curious summary of his life with which the book concludes, he says, in language too ample for quotation, that he began by "so great a tenderness and love towards mankind" that he believed every one to be virtuous, but that his Parliamentary experience soon taught him that men "upon whose ingenuity and probity he would willingly have deposited all his concerns of this world" were "totally false and disingenuous"; that "religion was made a cloak to cover the most impious designs, and reputation of honesty a stratagem to deceive and cheat others who had no mind to be wicked." It is true that he adds that the Court was "as full of murmuring, ingratitude, and treachery against the best and most bountiful master in the world as the country and the city"; but scores of passages might easily be quoted from his works which show that he was utterly unable to believe that the Parliamentary party could have any conscientious belief at all in their own principles. This intense zeal is the more difficult to explain because he stood almost alone in it. Falkland, for instance, was obviously in great doubt as to the course which he had taken; but perhaps the most curious case was that of Sir Edmund Verney, the standard-bearer. On the march to Edge Hill he complimented Hyde on his cheerfulness, adding that, for his own part, he could not be cheerful:—

"You," said Verney, "have satisfaction in your conscience that you are in the right; that the King ought not to grant what is required of him. . . . but for my part, I do not like the quarrel, and do heartily wish that the King would yield, and consent to what they desire. . . . I will deal freely with you. I have no reverence for the Bishops for whom this quarrel subsists."

Clarendon's intense partisanship for the King and the Bishops, wherever he got it, certainly went a very long way, for it made him thoroughly disingenuous in his subsequent account of the transactions in which he was concerned. No one would ever guess from his writings that he had voted for Strafford's attender, or for the Bill for perpetual Parliaments. Other instances of great forgetfulness or deceitfulness have been exposed elaborately by Mr. Forster, in his *Life of Eliot*. It ought, however, to be observed that both his *History* and his *Life* are exceedingly imperfect. He

omits many matters which ought to have found a place in his writings. For instance, he does not even allude to the Act for abolishing feudal tenures.

In the second stage of his life—the civil war, and the years of exile which followed it—the autobiography adds little to the *History of the Rebellion* except a certain number of personal anecdotes. The most interesting relate to his residence at Jersey, where he employed himself, between 1646 and 1648, in writing his History. As usual, he commends his own industry with that grave, measured self-esteem which was peculiar to him:—

He seldom spent less than ten hours in the day [amongst his books and papers], and it can hardly be believed how much he read and writ there; inasmuch as he did usually compute that during his whole stay in Jersey, which was some months above two years, he writ daily little less than one sheet of large paper with his own hand.

Creditable enough, but nothing to make a marvel of, one would think.

The third part of Clarendon's Life stands alone, relating as it does, to a period subsequent to the termination of his History. It relates to the first years of the reign of Charles II. It is a good deal occupied with Clarendon's own personal affairs, which have now fallen much out of date. He finds it necessary, for instance, to go with extreme minuteness into most of the points on which his impeachment was grounded, and to show, step by step, how unreasonable they were, and how hardly he was used. This he does successfully enough, but at wearisome length to a modern reader. One only of the personal scenes of the book is curious enough to be worth particular reference. It is the one in which he describes his behaviour on hearing of his daughter's private marriage to James II. When informed of the fact by the Marquis of Ormond and the Earl of Southampton, at the desire of Charles II., he behaved in a manner which it takes him two pages to describe, the nature of which is sufficiently indicated by the marginal notes which illustrate them. "The Chancellor struck with it to the heart" is the summary of about half a page; "and breaks out into a very immoderate passion" is the summary of the remainder. It is a most appropriate one, for the concluding sentences, the stately style of which are in strange contrast to their character, are:—

He hoped their Lordships would concur with him that the King should immediately cause the woman to be sent to the Tower, and to be cast into a dungeon, under so strict a guard that no person living should be committed to come to her; and then that an Act of Parliament should be immediately passed for the cutting off of her head, to which he would not only give his consent, but would very willingly be the first man to propose it; and whoever knew the man will believe that he said all this very heartily.

He also observed "that he had much rather his daughter should be the Duke's whore than his wife," as, in the first case, he might turn her out of doors, and have done with her; whereas, in the second, his duty as a loyal subject, and as first Minister of the Crown, would be to get her head cut off. This story is often told as a proof of the passionate, bigoted loyalty of Clarendon. We agree with Lord Campbell in thinking that his lordship did protest too much, and that in truth he was by no means so angry as he professed to be. The worst part of his whole character—and the fault is illustrated in endless ways—is his frequent insincerity. No doubt the events of his life afforded much excuse for it, but it shows itself continually, and almost always in the same form. He keeps continually saying, almost in so many words, but at all events indirectly—"I am a rough, honest, passionate, plainspoken man, proud of my sincerity, perhaps too secure in my good conscience. My frank harshness of manner was the cause of all my misfortunes." The slyness which lurks under this sort of roughness is the slyest thing in the whole world.

The general view which the later part of the Life affords of the state of the country at the Restoration is exceedingly interesting. When attentively read, it shows what an immense change had been made by the civil war in the position of Royalty, notwithstanding the eagerness with which Charles was welcomed back in the first instance. It has been usual to represent Clarendon as the grave Mentor, the partisan of decency and order, who was driven into exile by the gross ingratitude and wickedness of a King who could not bear his own vices to be reproved, and of a Court which was the natural enemy of all decency and gravity. In all this there is a good deal of truth, but it is not quite the whole truth. There are many indications which it is impossible to mistake, though it would be difficult to exhibit them at full length in a moderate compass, that, apart from and over and above the offence given by Clarendon's well-deserved rebukes of Charles and his vices, Charles perceived that he did not enter into the spirit of the times, but belonged to a different age. Throughout the whole of his book he speaks of the Presbyterian party in a tone of rancorous moral condemnation. They had, he says in one place, no title to their lives except the King's mercy. All his policy was in the same direction. He never could look upon any of the doings of the Long Parliament with toleration. For instance, the Triennial Act was then as much a part of the law of the land as any other; yet Charles said, in so many words, apparently with the full concurrence of his Chancellor, that he would never permit a Parliament to assemble under its provisions, because they were derogatory to the Royal power. So Clarendon continually tried to get the King to dissolve the Parliament elected after his return—the second Long Parliament, as it was called. This seemed, and perhaps in some respects actually was, a constitutional measure, but Charles's reasons for not doing so show what the real issue between himself and his Chancellor was. He refused to dissolve the Parliament because he thought he could

govern through it. His other counsellors told him "that he would never have such another Parliament, where he had near one hundred members of his own menial servants and their near relations, who were all at his disposal." Clarendon would, no doubt, have liked the Parliament to have greater purity and less power. Charles felt that the Parliament could never again recede to the position which it had occupied in the early part of the century, and that the only chance of maintaining his power was by the use of influence. The honestest man of the two was less favourable to freedom than the other. A remarkable summary of Clarendon's own views is given in the latter part of the book:—

He did never dissemble from the time of his return with the King, whom he had likewise prepared and disposed to the same sentiments, whilst His Majesty was abroad, that his opinion was that the late rebellion never could be extirpated and pulled up by the roots till the King's regal and inherent power and prerogative should be fully avowed and vindicated, and till the usurpations in both Houses of Parliament, since the year 1640, were disclaimed and made odious; and many other excesses which had been affected by both before that time, under the name of Privileges, should be restrained or explained.

This was the leading idea of all his policy, and it is to be traced, in a variety of minute ways, in all that he has to say on the subject of the management of public affairs. He could not forgive Charles for being less of a Tory than himself:—

The King had in his nature so little reverence or esteem for antiquity and did, in truth, so much condemn old orders, forms, and institutions, that the objections of novelty rather advanced than obstructed any proposition.

There are a good many incidental remarks in Clarendon's Life which throw light on the manners of the age which he describes. He gives an account, for instance, of his way of spending his time when he began to get business at the Bar—i.e. at some period being between 1630 and 1640. How he spent his mornings does not appear; but he saw his friends at dinner, in the middle of the day. The afternoons "he dedicated to the business of his profession," and he read "polite learning" at night. "He never supped for many years before the troubles brought in that custom." His vacation he passed in study, except two months in the summer, when he went out of town. He afterwards speaks of the House of Commons rising at four as a "disorderly hour," and refers to dinners given by the popular leaders after the House had risen. Probably this is what he means by the troubles bringing in the custom of supping. During the civil war there was a rapid transport of despatches, "when gentlemen undertook the service, which they were willing enough to do," between London and York. Letters went out at twelve on Saturday night and the answer returned at ten on Monday morning. Clarendon, too, gives us the first notice of newspapers:—

After he [the King] had read his several letters of intelligence, he took out the prints of diurnals, and speeches, and the like, which were every day printed at London.

After the Restoration, he speaks of bankers as—

A tribe that had risen and grown up in Cromwell's time, and never were heard of before the late troubles, till when the whole trade of money had passed through the hands of the scriveners.

He thinks it necessary to explain the word "million" as often as he uses it, by adding, in a parenthesis, "Ten hundred thousand."

In concluding a notice of Clarendon's *History of the Rebellion*, some time ago, we gave a specimen of his occasional eloquence. We will conclude this notice of his Life, which is far from being an eloquent book, with a specimen of the wonderful clumsiness into which he habitually allowed himself to slide when he wrote under no special excitement. As a clue to the labyrinth, we may observe that Clarendon meant that Lord Falmouth despised Pen, and that Mr. Coventry supported him:—

The Earl of Falmouth and Mr. Coventry were rivals who should have most interest in the Duke, who loved the Earl best, but thought the other the wiser man, who supported Pen (who disoblged all the courtiers), even against the Earl, who contemned Pen.

Here are five "whos" in one sentence, and each refers to a different antecedent—namely, 1, Falmouth and Coventry; 2, The Duke of York; 3, Coventry; 4, Pen; and 5, Falmouth.

#### NEW POETRY.\*

WHY should any one, with certain obvious exceptions, go on writing poetry? The answer is plain; that it is a great amusement to the writers, and, on the whole, after making allowance for certain undeniable evils, it is not a very great annoyance to any one else. We exclude, of course, the possible danger of being called upon to listen to an author's recital of his works, or to give him a candid opinion of their merits. But there is the great advantage about a poem that it is generally short. Few men in these days have the courage for writing original epics, though they have a fancy for translating them. Mr. Brodie, indeed, is going to bring out a poem in four cantos. Only one has appeared at present, and persons who like such reading as we are about to describe may get through it very comfortably in half an hour. Taken in these moderate doses, we incline to the opinion that some people may not impossibly finish it. We do not, however, recommend the experiment. Mr. Brodie favours us with a preface, giving an anticipatory defence for having written a poem at all.

\* *Euthanasia*. By Erasmus H. Brodie. London: Longmans & Co. 1866. *The Wife's Library, and other Pieces*. By John Butler Chorley. London: Chapman & Hall. 1865.



He says that people will tell him, first, that this is not a poetical age; and, secondly, that he should have chosen a subject more removed from him in time. Instead of describing the cruise of the *Erebus* and *Terror*, he should have taken the "Discovery of America," the "Death of Montezuma," the "Fall of Wallenstein," or some similarly lively subject. We certainly are not about to raise either of these objections. Our one recommendation to Mr. Brodie would be next time to leave out the rhymes and the divisions into lines and stanzas. His poem will run into very tolerable prose; but it comes under no definition of poetry that we know of, except that of being in verse. It is mere prose bewitched; and it is really curious that a man should fancy himself to be writing a poem when he is merely torturing Captain Sherard Osborn's book into Spenserian stanzas. The process certainly is free from one objection. There is no affectation of the ordinary kind about his writing. It never becomes turgid or metaphorical or bombastic (except, indeed, that an invocation of the Spirit of Poesy is inserted *à propos* of nothing particular about half-way through); but then it is at least as necessary for a poet to try to be vigorous as to avoid being overstrained, whereas Mr. Brodie jogs as contentedly along in his Spenserian stanzas as if he was writing an account of the expedition for the newspapers. The whole performance is about on the level of those curious productions which are sometimes sent in for prize poems; in which the author has been so surprised at finding that he can rhyme, that he has quite forgotten to do anything else. It is a really curious psychological phenomenon that any educated man should have written such stuff as *Euthanasia*, and been deceived by its external form into fancying that it had more in common with Spenser than with a column of the *Times*.

The so-called poem begins with a statement of the subject, with remarks on the general impulse communicated to science by the peace of 1815, and the special impulse towards Arctic discovery, followed by some observations about the Esquimaux, and "their manners strange, how every gift they lick, needle or saw or looking-glass or knife." Luckily, he passes them over shortly, though "inclined, did time admit, their clean Pure dome of snow to sing and winter's household scene." We are then favoured with a slight sketch of Arctic discovery between the years 1815 and 1845, in such terms as these—"fresh expeditions constantly were made year after year, and winters whole men stayed in forest deserts." After which Sir John Barrow makes a long speech, to no particular audience and in no particular time or place; this being a poetical way of stating that he had written a great many articles in the *Quarterly Review*, of which these stanzas contain the substance. He tells, for example, how Dease and Simpson

Re-embarked on board,  
Mapped two successive years three hundred miles  
With patience unexcelled and superhuman toils.

This speech

th' assembled sailor chivalry  
Drank with one ear;

a somewhat singular performance; which means, metaphorically, that they approved of Sir John's articles. Lord Haddington then remarks to Sir John Franklin that he is sixty years old, and must stay at home; whereupon,

Him with eyes that shine,  
Brief answer made the knight, "I am but fifty-nine!"

A good many volunteers join Sir John, and hereupon the Spirit of Poesy is invoked as before mentioned, with some of the customary talk about "Tiber's side and Arno's rill"; after which the progress of the expedition is duly detailed in the style of "Our Own Correspondent." The ships, we are told, were well found:—

Three years' provisions in each ship are stored,  
Three years' 'tis hoped, will bring them safely back;  
And all that arts inventive can afford,  
Food, implements, ice-saws, crow's-nest, they pack.

We have careful geographical details in this fashion:—

If there too spiteful winter closed the gate,  
Debarred both routes, still all the South remained,  
Thro' Regent Inlet or James Ross's Strait,  
By which the continent could be attained.

After this, the poet takes his sailors comfortably down the Thames, introducing a stanza upon Lord Palmerston, which he assures us in a note "is not out of place," because he has just mentioned the heroic nature of Englishmen; and, therefore, "as a true exemplar of an English gentleman, a few lines here are not irrelevant." Gradually we get to Stromness and to the Arctic Seas, where, as the poet pathetically remarks:—

Animal life abounds, the seal serene  
Basks with his shining orbs, or huge whales shake  
The trembling wave, fowl feed, and walrus awake.

If by the seal's "shining orbs" are meant his eyes, we should have preferred calling them fishy. Having got his adventurers safely to Beechey's Island, Mr. Brodie comes home, as he rather mysteriously tells us, "to drop his anchor in the Muse's port, and have his frail bark in strong iron cased, that soon must be by fiercest tempest chased, fronting all winter's utmost rage severe." What Mr. Brodie's bark means, or why it should be iron-cased, we have not the faintest idea. But we hope that the process won't enable him to make many more ventures in the poetical line.

Mr. Chorley's volume, if it does not attain any very high degree of excellence, is at least too good to be put in the same class with Mr. Brodie's. Mr. Chorley is evidently a man of taste, who, if he does not write very excellent poems, knows at any rate what poems ought to be. His verses do not give us the impression of

having first been written in prose, then cut up into lengths of ten syllables, and finally twisted about forcibly into rhymes. They have a certain natural swing and harmony about them, which shows that, if the writer had any very poetical ideas, they would not fail of expression for want of due power over language. We may, and in fact do, think them deficient in inspiration; but there is nothing in them grotesque, nor any absence of due polish. Mr. Chorley himself speaks very modestly about them. The chief poem, the "Wife's Litany," had, he says, been laid aside for several years, and when he accidentally found it again he thought it had "a certain character of its own sufficiently genuine to warrant its preservation." We do not dispute this verdict, as it is in fact rather difficult to say what exact degree of merit warrants the preservation of a poem. The most curious thing about it is the method of composition of which Mr. Chorley informs us. He seems, as we judge from other pieces in the volume, to have a decided predilection for ghosts and the supernatural generally. He says himself that the "source of the poem was derived from that unknown region which lies beyond the range of the mind's voluntary excursions—a mysterious province, every glimpse of which I have long been accustomed to regard with attention, not to say with reverence." Accordingly, Mr. Chorley favours us with a ballad, something after the "Ancient Mariner" fashion, where a dead man steers a ship home, all its proper navigators being killed off in a very disagreeable manner. He finds the remains of an old wreck in another ballad, and has a long and interesting conversation with a ghost, who kindly gives him the particulars of the accident by which it was lost, and ends by calling up the spirits of the rest of the crew, much as Admiral Hosier's injured ghost did in a parallel case. Mr. Chorley, then, having these propensities towards the superhuman, had a dream. He saw "a vision of the night," in which the leading incidents of the "Wife's Litany" were presented "with such vivacity and completeness that, on waking, it was little more than an act of memory to retrace the received impression." The dream which thus formed the nucleus of the poem appears, as we infer from the poem itself, to have been on this wise. He saw an old chapel at midnight, in which a villainous knight, assisted by his domestic chaplain and an evil-minded retainer, were burying a victim. This victim would naturally be a gentleman who had been in love with the knight's wife before her marriage, and whom he had taken the opportunity to murder comfortably, with the chaplain's connivance, on his unexpected reappearance. To the party thus pleasantly engaged enters the wife, in a state either of somnambulism or of demoniacal possession; for, from a conversation of certain highly indefinite "voices" a short time before, Mr. Chorley seems to attribute this sleep-walking to a very ill-disposed "Shadow," which makes the lights burn blue. The lady walks up to the altar, and, kneeling down before it, proceeds to utter her "litany," which, it need hardly be said, is not of a conciliatory tendency to her husband. She prays, in fact, in a very emphatic manner, that—

For the lips his breath has soiled,  
On his lips be gall and blight;  
And the worm that sleeps not, coiled  
In his bosom day and night.

After a good deal of this, the bell strikes midnight, and the "unhallowed sprite" leaves her; she awakes, sees her lover lying dead, and, what is indeed the only course open to her under the circumstances, falls on his body and dies herself; the knight goes mad; and "the voices" inform us that the lady and her lover are going up to heaven without further trouble. The various scenes which lead up to this conclusion may be easily imagined. We certainly do not envy Mr. Chorley his dreams, which are unpleasantly suggestive of previous suppers. Admitting, however, that poets have a right to deal in shadows and voices and wild huntsmen and other anomalous beings, the story is well enough told. The form, it appears, is intended to be in imitation of Spanish comedy, and people who like to read pretty verses about such unsubstantial subjects may go through it without any danger of having their taste offended. We confess that dreamland seems to us to be rather too unsubstantial a district even to found poems upon; but Mr. Chorley may boast of having added one more to a list in which Kubla Khan is the only other example that we can at present remember.

Neither of the poems we have noticed can be considered as serious additions to our literature; but, as mathematicians say that one indefinitely small thing may bear an indefinitely great ratio to another, so two poor poems may be incomparably different in merit. Mr. Chorley is not a Shakspeare, nor even a Coleridge; but a talent for writing elegant verse without very much meaning, or very ambitious aim, is enough to establish a vast difference between its possessor and a writer of the unsuccessful prize-poem order. It is worth while to compare him with Mr. Brodie, in order to give him the gratitude due for what is, at first sight, the rather negative merit of not being more prosaic than prose itself.

#### DEAN ALFORD'S ENGLISH VERSION OF ST. PAUL'S EPISTLES.\*

WE have before us Dean Alford's second volume of the Greek Testament for English readers. We indicated in our notice of Vol. I. the class of readers for whom we thought it might prove

\* *The New Testament, for English Readers.* By Henry Alford, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. 2 vols. Vol. II. Part I.—The Epistles of St. Paul.

useful, and, on the other hand, that class whose wants it would wholly miss. As the present volume contains simply the Epistles of St. Paul, it might be taken for granted that whatever was dry, difficult, or repulsive in the Dean's way of handling the more popular texts of the Gospels and Acts would be found dry, difficult, and repulsive in a considerably higher degree in the more didactic and controversial ground over which these Epistles carry us. The text of St. Paul has unquestionably peculiar difficulties even amongst Hellenistic writers. If from it we turn to our own English authorized version in quest of further light, we find we have passed from the *obscurum* to the *obscurius*. If we turn from the authorized version to that of the Dean, we find doubtless a more accurate rendering, but one unfamiliar in the terms used, and not, on the whole, compensating the preliminary difficulty inevitably thus imposed by any superior facilities which it offers as regards intelligibility. The Greek is hard, the A.V. is harder, the Dean's version harder still; but the Dean's notes compound, and raise to a higher power, the difficulties of all these. We are lucky in having St. Paul himself to fall back upon. Those who, being mere "English" readers, have not the original as a "crib" to the meaning of the translator and commentator, are to be pitied. We open, at random, in illustration of this, upon Rom. xi. 32, *συγκρίσεις γὰρ ὁ θεὸς τοὺς πάντας εἰς ἀπειθήναι, ἵνα τοὺς πάντας ἐλεήσῃ*. The A.V. is, "For God hath concluded them all in unbelief, that he might have mercy upon all." The Dean renders, "For God shut up all men in disobedience, that he may have mercy upon all." The substitution of "disobedience" for "unbelief" is an undoubted correction, but how "shut up" improves on "concluded" we do not see. "Shut up" is hardly intelligible now, save of physical restraint as by incarceration. "Concluded" was intelligible, when the A.V. was made, as meaning "included together in a class or description"; and, to any one who has the most rudimentary skill in Latin to aid him, it suggests that sense still. But further, "may" substituted for "might" is grammatically improper with the aoristic "shut up" preceding, just as "might" was improper with the perfect present "hath concluded," in the A.V. As regards tense-signs, we will observe, whilst on this passage, that in the two previous verses of the same context the words *ἠπαύθησαν*, *ἠπαύθησαν*, catch our eye, which we perceive are rendered by the Dean, the one "were," the other "have been disobedient," being the second and third persons plural of the very same tense-form in the Greek. We cannot see why this variety should exist in rendering the same context, and had rather thought this one of those points on which modern preciseness of rendering might have been presumed to be proof against error. We will take, as regards the notes, our illustration from the same page, on v. 29, which reads in Dean Alford's version thus:—"For the gifts and the calling of God cannot be repented of." The note is as follows:—

For (explanation how God's favour regards them still, though for the present cast off) **the gifts** (generally) and **calling** (as the most excellent of these gifts. That calling seems to be intended by which God adopted the posterity of Abraham into covenant. A very similar sentiment is found, ch. iii. 3, where the same is called "the faithfulness of God.") But the words are true not only of this calling but of every other. Bengel says, "gifts toward the Jews; calling toward the Gentiles." But thus the point of the argument seems to be lost, which is, that the Jews being once chosen as God's people, will never be entirely cast off) of **God cannot be repented of** (i.e. are irrevocable, do not admit of a change of purpose. The E.V., "without repentance" is likely to mislead. Compare Hosea xiii. 14).

The reader will see at once the plan of the note-writing. It is to pause and analyse each word or member of a phrase, with its explanation appended in parenthesized clauses. Thus, within the same parenthesis, sentences begin and end, objections are stated and rebutted, illustrative or hostile views of other writers are introduced, and accepted or combated. This is a result of the attempt to follow in detail the rapidly and often abruptly transitional style of St. Paul. Thus every annotation is more or less tessellated and interlarded with matter the relation of which to the text explained requires often a severe strain on the attention to perceive it. We see too much of the process of explaining, and long for a more direct grasp of the result in an explanation achieved. We will take another example from the note on the words from Cor. ii. v. 1, which the Dean renders, "For we know that if the earthly tabernacle wherein we dwell be dissolved, we have a building from God," &c. The note begins—

1.] For (gives the reason of ch. iv. 17—principally of the emphatic words in that verse, "more and more exceedingly"—showing how it is that so wonderful a process takes place) **we know** (as in ch. iv. 14—are convinced, as a sure matter of hope) **that if** ("supposing": indefinite and doubtful: if this delivering unto death continually should end in veritable death. The case is hypothetical, because many will be glorified without the dissolution taking place; see 1 Cor. xv. 51, 53) **our earthly tabernacle dwelling** (the similitude is not derived from the wandering of the Israelites in the wilderness, nor from the tabernacle, but is a common one with Greek writers.

It then passes on to quote Dean Stanley on tents of "Cilician hair-cloth"; after which,

Chrysostom observes:—"Having said a *tabernacle dwelling*, and having thus implied easy taking down and transitoriness, he opposes to this the noun which is *eternal*") **were dissolved** ("a gentle word," Bengel, i.e. "taken down," "done away with"), **we have** (as Meyer rightly remarks, the present tense is used of the time at which the dissolution shall have taken place).

We cannot spare space to conclude the note, which, indeed, forms more than two columns of small print in the Dean's book. We will select a third specimen from the note on Rom. vii. 4, "Dead to the law through the body of Christ." We find it as follows:—

through (by means of) the (crucified) body (compare the expression "through the offering of the body of Jesus Christ," Heb. x. 10) of Christ; that you might be joined to another, (even) to him who was raised from the dead (alluding both to the comparison in verses 2, 3, and to ch. vi. 4, 5), to the intent that we should bring forth fruit (alluding to ch. vi. 22, and at the same time (Luke i. 42) carrying on the similitude of marriage.

This last is involved to a degree perhaps beyond the average, but the first two passages fairly represent the curious cross-stitch with which the Dean works. They are no worse than may be found on perhaps three pages out of every four. The effect on the average reader we conceive to be somewhat like that produced by an attempt to read the advertisement sheet of the *Times* across the columns. The spasmodic jerks from thick type to thin, with italics interspersed, and square brackets set within round ones, till the eye is lost in the labyrinth of parenthesis, leave on the reader the unpleasant impression of a monster sentence pressing his feeble wits with the incubus of an intangible meaning.

We ought to add that the new translation is a feature which appears in this volume for the first time. The editor was content, in the Gospels and Acts, with a running correction of such phrases as seemed to call for it; these, however, multiplied in the Epistles till the margin became overcrowded, and relief was found in a version which corrects the authorized. It is superior in exactness, but inferior in taste. "My child Timothy" is no improvement on the "son Timothy" of the A.V., but rather the reverse. "A herald" is suggestive of associations which do not square with the *κηρὺς* of the original. "In the hypocrisy of speakers of lies" (1 Tim. iv. 2), if it be even right, is very obscure. No English reader will easily see what to make of "in." We believe it is not right, and that this is one of those passages—like Ephes. ii. 2; iii. 17, 18; Col. iii. 16, and perhaps i. 9, 10—in which St. Paul has confused the case of the principal noun or mood of the principal verb with some subordinate one. We think it probable that *ψευδολόγων* stood really *ψευδολογοῦν* in his mind, but was warped by the proximity of the genitive just preceding, *δαίμωνων*, into the wrong form of expression; and that *ἐν ὑποκρίσει* is really, as our A.V. gives it, an adverb of *ψευδολόγων*, not in regimen before it as given by the Dean.

It should, moreover, be noticed that the catch-words of the notes in thick type are not always, as they should be, the same as the words in the Dean's amended version on which the notes profess to comment. Thus, in Col. ii. 17, "the body is of Christ" becomes, in the thick type, **the body belongs to Christ**; the "rudiments" of v. 20 becomes **there elements**; and other examples might easily be added. This may not be important, but its influence, on the whole, is rather to add to the bewildering effect of the general arrangement.

As regards the general method of exegesis, we think we miss something which might easily have been included in the commentator's plan, and the want of which makes the reader feel overwhelmed by detail, without grasping effectually the broad outlines of the apostolic argument. We will take, as an example, the Epistle to the Galatians. We find in the Introduction, § iii., a clear sketch of the object of that epistle in its three chief parts—(1) apologetic, (2) polemic, (3) hortatory; and these are of course recognised in the commentary. The reader, however, finds little between that skeleton analysis of the introduction and the broken comments on individual verses or phrases of the translated text; indeed, he finds nothing continuously given to assist him in tracing a summary of the argument. We discover here and there scattered fragments of what might, if sustained, have formed such a summary for him. For instance, we have an italicised summary of the argumentative purport of ch. iii. 6-9, standing isolated; and nothing of a similar kind occurs again till v. 15-18. In chap. iv. the same plan is pursued more steadily, the paragraphs 1-7, 8-11, 12-16 having each such a condensed tenor of the argument; but on looking on we find nothing similar until v. 21-30, where again the argument is condensed in italics. Now what we should have liked to find would be such an analytical summary, sustained and exhaustive, given entire at the head of each of the three larger sections of the epistle, or in parts at the subdivisions of each. On these larger prospective lines the topics subordinatedly handled would have ranged themselves with their relative degree of prominence, and the effect might have been perspicuity where now we find the opposite of it. The detached fragmentary attempts at such an analysis only puzzle the reader to make out why they are given at all. We should like to have seen the skeleton set up, and then overlaid with the sinews and integuments proper to clothe it. The result of the plan pursued is something like that of the puzzle of our childhood—a picture with the "perspective run mad." The perpetual digressiveness of St. Paul's style would have made such a succinct anatomy of his argument especially valuable. And for want of it the Dean's patient elaboration of his meaning in detail often runs to waste.

There are, to follow up the same epistle, one or two points on which we should like to notice a deficiency or a remarkable omission. On the famous text—one of the most difficult in St. Paul's writings, and therefore in the whole New Testament—Gal. iii. 20, *ὁ δὲ πατήρ εἰς ὅδε ὁρᾷ, ὁ δὲ θεὸς εἰς ὅδε*, we hardly think that, with all his obvious efforts at a candid and careful study, Dean Alford has been quite successful in exhibiting the key to the sense. We would refer him to Hermann's *Opuscula*, v. p. 128, where the best simplification which has fallen in our way may be found. It is far too long for extract, but we will cite on the words *εἰς ὅδε*, the following, "qui unus sit utpote testator, cuius unus ex voluntate nemine intercedente hæreditatem capiat hæres." We



see a note from Hermann on a passage in the *Iphig. in Aul.*, cited on this very passage in the Dean's Greek Testament; and one from Hermann on Viger, cited on an earlier verse of this same epistle; but of this monograph of Hermann's on the very epistle itself we are a little surprised to find no notice taken. Again, in the equally well-known passage in the opening of ch. iv., respecting the heir in his non-age, we should have expected some notice of the Roman *patria potestas*, and even more markedly of the Roman *adoptio* in reference to the *υιοθεσια* of v. 5. It can hardly be doubted that St. Paul, himself a Roman citizen, had these grand ideas which underlie so much of Roman jurisprudence in his mind when he penned the passage; but the fact becomes certain when we remember that these Galatæ to whom he was writing are expressly cited by Gaius as offering amongst their native institutions the only example of that *patria potestas* which the great lawyer had been able to trace amongst barbarous nations. We should the rather expect some notice of these points, inasmuch as, on Rom. viii. 17, a citation from Tholuck occurs, fully recognising Roman law in the word *συγγληρονόμος*.

We acknowledge thankfully the scholarly corrections of the A. V. in many places where mistranslations occur. Such are "hardened" (*επαυθηναν*) for "blinded" in Rom. xi. 7; "form" (= species, *ειδους*) for "appearance" in 1 Thess. v. 22; the correction of the popular error regarding the "vail on Moses' face" in 2 Cor. iii. 13, and especially a false tense in v. 16; and the expression "in how large letters" (*πηλικαις γραμμασιν*) for "how large a letter" in Gal. vi. 11, the reference being to the "large" characters of the apostle's own autograph. We also pay a similar tribute to the care in selecting here and there a better reading than that followed by the A. V., as in Gal. iv. 14, v. 1; Ephes. iii. 21, iv. 6, v. 9; and especially in 1 Tim. iii. 16. The book is a solid mine in which young divinity may hew and dig with profit. It is too square in the block and too rugged in the grain even to be popular in the most limited sense of the word, much more in that in which we ascribe popularity to Henry and Scott, or to Dr. Smith's *Dictionary of the Bible*. It needs cutting down and rearranging. The Dean, we fear, has been battenning on Teutonic expositors till he has caught their heavy trick of matter which exhausts the facts, and manner which exhausts the reader. If we may offer him a practical hint, we would say he should drop German and read French. He might then learn how to make a book acceptable as well as valuable.

#### PROFESSOR FAWCETT ON THE BRITISH LABOURER.\*

WE sometimes hear speculations as to the probable influence of Professors on the House of Commons; but Mr. Fawcett's book sets us wondering what will be the influence of the House of Commons upon Professors. We are inclined to think that, when he has had the advantage of a few years of that very impartial knocking about which is the lot of every M.P. within the walls of Parliament, he will write a much better book than that with which he has here presented us. In its original form, as a course of lectures delivered *ex officio* at Cambridge, it suggests the conclusion that its author has read a good deal on one side of the question; that he is extremely quick and clever; that he is an honest and hearty friend of the British labourer, and not a mere speechifying demagogue; but also that he has mixed too little with men whose opinions are opposed to his own, and whose talk would have taught him to regard this very book as the ingenious one-sided statement of a political partisan, rather than the complete and statesmanlike analysis of a difficult and complicated question.

The utterly unsatisfactory condition of the agricultural labourer in the British Isles has struck Mr. Fawcett with the same grief that it causes to every man who seriously reflects on the notorious facts of the time. In this respect, those who will sympathize with him in his feelings are very many. But, unlike most people who know that political nostrums are no better than medical nostrums, he has his remedy ready to cure all the ills of the time. The one idea that runs through his book is the urgent importance of making every man in the world more or less a capitalist or an owner of real property. Industry and all its attendant virtues, together with that material wealth which is their appropriate reward, in Mr. Fawcett's view, can never be reasonably expected in full perfection from men who work for wages. If it had occurred to him to add the word "weekly" in connection with "wages," the whole fabric of his theory would have tumbled to the ground. The fallacy of supposing that hired labour can never be as good as the labour expended on one's own property would have appeared in all its force on the recollection that the hired labour of men who are paid by salaries—i.e. by yearly wages—is as good as that of the very best of the peasant proprietors who constitute Mr. Fawcett's ideal of prosperous workmen. Proprietorship undoubtedly will stimulate industry more than the miserable wages which English farming has hitherto paid to the field labourer; but industry is of little avail in the midst of circumstances which paralyse it, and which are beyond the powers of all legislation to alter. To conceive that the British peasant is a careless, unprincipled hireling, who cheats his employer and never rises in the world, merely because he is a hireling, is to overlook the fact that the intense and energetic toil of the men who work for their living in all ranks of society, either with their head or their hands, is to a large extent hired labour. Is not Mr.

Fawcett himself a hired labourer? Is not Lord Russell a hired labourer? The condition of the British peasant is deplorable, not because he is paid by the week, but because his pay is insufficient to provide for him that sustenance and lodging which the standard of to-day demands. All the law-making in the world cannot alter the laws of climate, the influence of free-trade, of the facilities for locomotion, and of the ingenuities of modern machinery. If Mr. Fawcett would give their real interpretation to the very facts which he himself notices, he would remember that during the whole process of the accumulation of land in a few hands, which he laments as the source of innumerable evils, the actual condition of the British peasant has steadily improved. He is miserable, as we think, now; but what was he a hundred, or fifty, years ago? He has little animal food now; what was the bread that his grandfather lived upon? What were the houses, the clothing, and the education of the labourer of the last century? There is now more comfort in the cottage of the poor than, a hundred years ago, was to be found in the class above them. And every year the advance continues, though still too slowly. But this very advance is the direct result of that enormous development of wealth which manufactures, free-trade, and machinery have created in this country. You cannot dissociate the labourer, whether in cities or in fields, from the influences peculiar to each stage of economic growth in the civilized world. He must take his chance with the rest of his fellows. In an age whose special tendency is the rapid production of capital, it is impossible to prevent capital from exercising its natural power over labour without the adoption of the wildest theories of communism.

Mr. Fawcett, again, wholly overlooks the vast increase in the produce of British agriculture which has accompanied the diminution in the number of small estates. He lays it down as an undoubted truth that "when land is cultivated by small proprietors, it is at least as well cultivated, and as productive of wealth, as when a system of landed tenure like our own prevails." In another page he notes the circumstance that a hundred years ago there were about three times as many landed proprietors in England as there are at the present time. If Mr. Fawcett had extended his agricultural studies a little wider, he would have learnt that during this very period, in which the produce of the land ought, according to his theory, to have been steadily diminishing, it has actually increased about threefold. The smaller properties have been sold because their owners were not large capitalists, and therefore could not compete with men of large fortunes, who could thoroughly work the raw material of the land with machinery and well-remunerated hired labour. The advance in the production of stock, grain, and roots during the present generation alone is enormous; and there are scores of thousands of acres now yielding a profit which, a hundred years ago, were almost a barren waste. Can any one believe that the Hampshire and Wiltshire downs would be in their present fertile condition but for the system of stock-feeding adopted by wealthy landowners for the enrichment of their unproductive soils? Mr. Fawcett speaks with approval of the French system of territorial ownership. Surely he cannot have studied the report on English agriculture presented by M. Latour de Lavergne to the present Emperor, who sent him over as a kind of commissioner to compare the French and the English methods. In this report the failure of the French system is strikingly illustrated by the calculation that in France it requires considerably more than double the quantity of land to feed and fatten a sheep that is required under the English system of high farming. In fact it is as impossible for the small farm proprietor to compete with the wealthy tenants of the wealthy landowner as for the old-fashioned weaver to compete with the steam-machinery of Manchester and Preston.

Mr. Fawcett very naturally is disposed to look with favour upon the various co-operative societies which have been established in England and elsewhere to enable the artisan to obtain full value for his labour. As very valuable inventions within certain limits, we heartily share his feelings towards them. But their chief use is to enable the poor to buy the necessities of life on the same terms as the rich. The farm-labourer and the town artisan are grievously in the power of the small shopkeepers, who sell them goods of a bad quality at an excessive price. So far as these co-operative stores remedy this evil, their importance cannot easily be over-estimated. But when they become trading or manufacturing establishments on a large scale, nothing can prevent their falling under the operation of the laws which govern the relation between capital and labour. The shareholders will insist upon giving to capital those privileges which it enjoys in the markets of the whole world. They will insist upon hiring labour, and paying for it according to the market price of labour, and they will appropriate the profits resulting from the sale of the produce of that labour. Mr. Fawcett, being honest and enthusiastically sincere, admits that many of the co-operative societies have proved failures, and that, where they succeed, it must be under very exceptional conditions. But his reasoning in connection with the well-known Rochdale case is something marvellous. In glowing terms he describes the origin, progress, and success of the Rochdale Co-operative Mill, until it accumulated its present capital of 92,000*l.* He then proceeds to state and lament the very awkward fact that about three years ago a considerable majority of the shareholders insisted upon revolutionizing the original basis of the scheme, and converted the society into an ordinary joint-stock company. As such, it prospers as much as ever; Mr. Fawcett says, notwithstanding this radical change—others will say, in consequence of it,

\* *The Economic Position of the British Labourer.* By Henry Fawcett, M.P. London: Macmillan & Co.

and because this change was the inevitable result of that law in human nature which prompts a man who has got money to employ other men's labour to manufacture goods which he himself will sell for his own benefit, in the open market, at the highest price he can command.

We must, however, do Mr. Fawcett the justice to say that, though his reasonings tend to agrarian changes of the most revolutionary kind, his practical conclusions are comparatively moderate, though there may be differences of opinion as to the wisdom of some of them. He wishes to alter the law which, in the case of intestacy, gives all the real property to the nearest male heir, and generally he would put real and personal property on the same footing in all respects. Besides this, he would facilitate the conveyance of land as much as possible, so that it might oftener come into the market, though in what way this would tend to prevent rich men from buying up the land of poor men we fail to understand. His views of the political functions of the House of Lords are of the old and superficial kind. He regards the Peers as a drag upon the wheels of the too-speedy chariot of the House of Commons, and he denounces the proxy-giving which they practise, as if it were in some manner inherent in the principle of a territorial aristocracy. The real function of a territorial aristocracy, of which the House of Lords is but a comparatively unimportant embodiment, seems to have escaped his notice. A territorial aristocracy makes a central tyranny an impossibility. The French peasant proprietors are the basis of the Bonaparte despotism. That despotism may or may not be desirable for France as a nation, but that Louis Napoleon was made Emperor by the peasantry is incontestable. In England, where the land is owned by innumerable small local sovereigns, town and country, in whatever else they may disagree, would be unanimous in crushing the first attempt to establish a metropolitan tyranny, whether of a sovereign or of a House of Lords. In many parts of Germany the land is cultivated by its owners. But whatever may be the achievements of Germans in the domain of thought, they have as yet achieved nothing in the way of abolishing the despotism of grand-dukes and kings.

Altogether Mr. Fawcett's volume is a clever and interesting argument in support of a plausible hypothesis, but it is very far from exhibiting that exhaustive treatment of a subject which ought to be the characteristic of a series of lectures delivered to a University audience by one of her Professors. The purely political opinions which Mr. Fawcett occasionally expresses are open to graver objection. A University chair is not the place for talking either Radicalism or Toryism. Nothing can be more inappropriate to a discourse on political economy than a hit at the proxy-giving of the Lords. At the same time, there is a heartiness, an originality, and a vigour about the whole course, which favourably contrast with the dull cold tone of routine which is the characteristic of too many University lectures. At any rate, they make people think. And that is saying not a little in their favour.

#### MILLY'S HERO.\*

THE situation of two men in love with the same woman, or of two women in love with the same man, has always been a favourite subject with writers of fiction. In novels, as in real life, such a situation is of daily occurrence; but, notwithstanding its frequency, it rarely occurs to us to call it trite or commonplace. The reason probably is that such cases, though they start with the one common element of likeness, develop in their progress results of infinite variety. The faintest shade of difference in the conditions, the slightest variation in the character and circumstances of the actors, will produce a corresponding difference in the story and its *dénouement*. To take an imaginary case of this kind, and to trace the course of true love in its double channel, is a task demanding—if it is to be done well—a thorough knowledge of human nature, as well as a considerable amount of constructive skill. In the novel before us the attempt is made, and with a very fair amount of success. The book is worth reading, and we will not spoil the pleasure of the reader by describing the plot. For our present purpose it will be sufficient to state that Milly's hero is not only Milly's, but another lady's also; that by a peculiar concatenation of circumstances he is led to entertain more or less affection for both, and is, indeed, engaged to be married to each of them at the same time. The most hardened novel-reader will admit that in such a complication there is full scope for the display of the author's powers. Metastasio, who makes frequent use of this kind of plot, generally proceeds under such circumstances upon what may be called the "self-sacrifice" principle. Each of the rivals insists upon giving way to the other, and the beloved object, in gently indicating a preference, has only to regret that they cannot both be made happy. Now this sort of conclusion might be very well in the good old times, when disinterestedness and the other heroic virtues were possibly on a larger scale than at present; but rivals nowadays are not quite so accommodating. Rivals in real life are quite as apt as other people to give an unromantic preference to number one, and do not usually retire from the contest till they are tolerably sure that they have no chance of success. Where the rivalry is between women, the battle is fought under different conditions. By the ethics of society they are debarred from open warfare, but they are none the more disposed to surrender a lover without a struggle. The author of *Milly's Hero* has depicted with considerable skill the moral attitude of two women under such circumstances. Both are

deeply in love, both refined and womanly; and the behaviour of each in her difficult position is consistent with our knowledge of human nature, and at the same time such as to enlist our sympathies in her behalf. The last consideration is by no means unimportant. If the novelist had drawn our sympathies strongly to one side or the other, the interest of the novel would have been in a great measure destroyed. A hollow race is always a tame affair, but let the runners be neck and neck, and the excitement is sustained to the very finish. In this novel, the two heroines (for Milly Athorpe and Hester Fyvie have nearly equal claims to the title) are both attractive. We are ourselves inclined to accuse the hero of bad taste in his final selection; but there will probably be no lack of voices to uphold his choice. Like Captain Macheath, he could be happy with either, "were t'other dear charmer away"; but as a choice is inevitable, he must make the best of it. It is the case of all others in which an *embarras des richesses* is really embarrassing.

In a literary point of view, Miss Fyvie is decidedly a better character than Milly. The family likeness in disposition to her father is well conceived and cleverly indicated; and her character is consistent, and well sustained throughout. Of Milly we cannot say so much. We have, in her case, to get over an antecedent improbability, which is more or less a stumbling-block throughout the story. When we first make her acquaintance, she is a mere peasant-girl, engaged in mining work, though gifted with a taste for reading, and a more than ordinary share of good sense and self-respect. We are quite willing to grant in her favour these preliminary advantages; but even giving her their full benefit, we may be permitted to doubt whether a girl so situated in the first volume could so quickly develop into the self-possessed and polished young lady we meet in the second and third. The author has evidently spent much pains over the elaboration of this character. Milly's language is always carefully chosen—indeed, a thought too carefully—and the result is not satisfactory. A young lady who never opens her mouth but to say something very sweet and pretty is apt to cloy upon the intellectual palate. *Tonjours perdrix* is bad enough, but *tonjours* sugar-plums is still worse. Among other objectionable peculiarities, Milly has a rather affected habit of speaking of herself in the third person, as "your Milly," &c. Now these little prettinesses are admissible upon the stage, where an author has necessarily a very limited space wherein to display a character, and it is just possible that the audience may miss half the good qualities of the heroine if they are not clearly stamped upon her language and behaviour. But in the case of a three-volume novel, the same excuse does not hold good. There is full time and space to indicate character, and the writer, if he be wise, will strive to do so by delicacy of finish rather than by breadth of colour.

The author has avoided the too common error (especially prevalent among lady novelists) of endowing his hero with quasi-superhuman attributes. Laurence Raxford is a very fair specimen of a flesh-and-blood mortal, gentlemanly and high-principled, but not too wise to do occasionally an indiscreet thing, and not entirely exempt from the unheroic love of self. It is to the credit of the author's skill that, while we feel that poor Miss Fyvie is rather badly treated, we do not (the question of taste excepted) feel indignant with Laurence Raxford for acting as he does. Laurence, like Miss Fyvie, is the victim of circumstances, and acquires himself quite as well as nine men out of ten would have done in a similar position. It would have been quite possible to devise for him some exceptionally heroic course of conduct, but we think that the author has done wisely in not making the attempt. The highest art, in an every-day story, is to make the characters act as such characters would probably do under the same influences in every-day life. As a rule, the author is tolerably successful in doing this. Captain Athorpe is very well drawn, though his language is a little too fine for his supposed position. The character, however, which gives us most complete satisfaction is that of Fyvie senior. The kindness, shrewdness, and energy of the worthy mine-owner, his quick outspoken manner, his faint tinge of worldliness, his open-handed hospitality in prosperity, and the pluck with which he faces adversity, are painted in life-like colours, and form a character of high merit for truth and unity.

Where so much care and pains have been expended upon the principal characters, it is to be regretted that the subordinates did not come in for a larger share of attention. It is a frequent mistake, both of authors and artists, to imagine that if the centre figures be well executed, anything is good enough for the personages in the background. It is true that we do not demand that the part of Guildenstern be as artistically played as that of Hamlet; but we should be justly offended if Guildenstern were represented by an idiot or a gorilla. One or two of the minor personages in this book are rather caricatures than characters. Mr. Engleton, the eccentric philanthropist, who is eloquent on the subject of drains, and whose pet scheme for a psalm-singing soup-kitchen has failed because the soup "inflated the almsmen too much for musical purposes," is offensive rather than amusing. We observe that he is christened Charles and James alternately half a dozen times in the course of a single chapter, but we are at no loss to account for the inconsistency. We can well imagine that the author, in revising his work, skipped all that related to Mr. Engleton, as we ourselves should certainly do upon a second reading. Mrs. Llewellyn, again, is a gross inconsistency. Female villains may by this time be considered an institution in light literature, but we can hardly believe that Lister

\* *Milly's Hero*. By the Author of "Grandmother's Money," &c. 3 vols. London: Hurst & Blackett.

Fyvie's m... would "g... of her ma... master, is... in his co... journeys f... appears, of... The recog... previous a... by no me... absences... author on... practical u... tion, whic... served.

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\* I... Coppe...



Fyvie's maternal aunt, priding herself upon her good family, would "grind her teeth and swear like a trooper" at the failure of her matchmaking plans. Mr. Whiteshell, the old dancing-master, is another incongruity, though his inconsistencies are rather in his conduct than in his character. He is perpetually taking journeys from London into Devonshire, for the sole purpose, as it appears, of accidentally recognising one or other of the characters. The recognitions do not produce any particular result, and the previous acquaintance is not satisfactorily accounted for. We were by no means surprised to find, in the last volume, that his many absences had deprived him of his pupils, and we congratulate the author on having at last put his dreary philanthropist to some practical use, by making him find the poor old gentleman a situation, which his exertions in the author's service have well deserved.

It has been frequently remarked that, when a novelist wanders into the domain either of law or of physic, he is sure to make egregious mistakes. *Milly's Hero* affords us illustrations in both kinds, though the author scarcely ventures beyond the borderline of the dangerous ground. The two Fyvie, father and son, and Laurence Raxford are partners in the Wheal Desperation Mine. Through the extravagance of Fyvie junior, the partnership becomes involved, and an arrangement with its creditors is necessary. It is settled—we adopt the author's own statement—that the creditors shall "take the mine for the debt"; which arrangement, after paying them in full, "leaves about two hundred and fifty pounds a year for the late proprietors." This is one of the most remarkable arrangements we ever heard of. If the meaning be that the value of the mine more than covers the amount of the debt, the surplus would naturally be handed over as principal to the late proprietors, and their interest would be at an end. If, on the other hand, the debts were to be paid out of profits, the transfer represented to have been made to the creditors becomes unnecessary and absurd. What the author's real meaning may have been we cannot undertake to say, but the transaction, as it stands, is simply ridiculous. We should recommend him, on future occasions when he finds himself trenching upon legal topics, to take the advice of his solicitor on the dangerous portions of his manuscript. His other error is the revival of a superstition which we deemed almost as much exploded as witchcraft. It was formerly supposed that lunatics, as the name implies, were affected by the changes of the moon; and the author accordingly represents Captain Athorpe, whose mind has been shaken by domestic misfortune, as sane at all times except when the moon is at the full, when he relapses into acute mania. We do not expect a novelist to be an authority on "Obscure Diseases of the Mind and Brain," but we are certainly surprised to find in a novel of this class a resuscitation of so worn-out a fallacy. All the faults we have pointed out might with a little extra care have been avoided, and *Milly's Hero* is so good that we cannot help regretting that it is not (as it might easily have been) still better.

#### WARING'S ILLUSTRATIONS OF ARCHITECTURE AND ORNAMENT.\*

WE have to thank the new, or rather the transformed, firm of "Day & Son, Limited," for greatly increased activity in the publication of costly illustrated books. It used to be the case that no volume of plates could be published, with any promise of paying its expenses, unless the author was guaranteed from loss by a long list of subscribers. And it was a common matter of complaint that, whereas France and Germany could produce any number of illustrated works, English publishers seldom ventured upon the experiment. But matters have much altered of late. The well-known lithographers of Lincoln's Inn Fields, under their new designation, issue almost every week new volumes from the press, sumptuously illustrated and attractively got up. Of these, some are good and some indifferent. We are now concerned with a specimen of the former class. Mr. Waring, whose services to the cause of decorative art are well known, especially in connection with the International Exhibition of 1862, has laid all lovers of art under an obligation by this new volume. We congratulate ourselves, as well as him, that he has been enabled to lay before the public in these seventy plates the result of many years of thought and labour.

We think that Mr. Waring undervalues the attractiveness of his own work when he limits, as he seems to do in his preface, its possible usefulness to those who are his fellow-artists and fellow-architects. No doubt it will be of double value to those who can adopt its hints and carry out its suggestions in their own handiwork or design. But we think that it is just as necessary, in the interests of art, to educate the public as the artists themselves. We are quite sure that an intelligent and a critical body of patrons is necessary to the successful culture of any art. If it be true that half the secret of an orator's success lies in the sympathy of his audience, the canon is still more true in respect of art. The restoration of architecture and of painting among us was contemporaneous with, if not consequent upon, the growth of a revived study of those arts among laymen. And we believe that when people have learnt to admire and to understand sculpture, which is perhaps the highest of all arts, we may yet see something like a new school of English sculptors arise among us. We can, therefore, honestly recommend Mr. Waring's books, not

only to professional designers who are in quest of new ideas and combinations for practical use, but to all who love the architectural and the decorative arts of mediæval Europe. How valuable and how beautiful these drawings are it is our present purpose to point out. But those who know Mr. Waring by reputation will not need to be told that not only is his choice of subjects exquisite, but his drawing is as true as it is bold. The etching of some of the plates in this volume seems to us to approach perfection.

Beginning with the Romanesque of the South of France, Mr. Waring takes his first subjects from the almost Byzantine sculptures, reliefs, and decorative mouldings of the abbey-church of St. Gilles, with which are compared numerous fragments of Romanesque work preserved in the Museum of Toulouse. More curious, though less imitable, are the details from the twelfth-century abbey-church of Moissac, in which the central pier of the chief portal is carved with numerous figures of lions and lionesses. Mr. Waring alleges—we know not by what authority—that these symbolize Christ and the Church. We believe that, here at least, they are merely decorative, without any emblematic meaning whatever. In the very next sculpture—from the door of St. Croix, Bordeaux—some lions are explained as symbols of the devil! Mr. Waring is not to be congratulated on his symbolical or iconological knowledge, and he had better have left these rude and puzzling sculptures uninterpreted. Further on, when attempting to describe some grotesque Romanesque corbels, our author speaks in all simplicity of "the lion's head being equally typical of the civil power, or of the devil devouring children"! And elsewhere we notice with amazement an assertion, entirely unsupported by evidence, that the Holy Scriptures are symbolized by "alternate torus and hollow mouldings." Happily the author is a far safer guide in merely artistic questions. In a Romanesque doorway from Poitiers we remark a moulding exactly resembling the fossil *cornu ammonis*. This is curious, and one would have liked to be told whether this form was suggested by the geology of the district. Passing over some bas-reliefs from St. Saturnin, Toulouse, and from the sarcophagi in the Arles Museum, we come to some interesting drawings from "the primitive church in the rock of Montmajour, probably founded by Childebert, about the year 537, and dedicated by St. Césaire" (as Mr. Waring calls him) "to St. Peter." One of the following plates contains a selection of early inscriptions, some of which are dated. The author strongly recommends the use of Roman capitals for inscriptions, on the ground of their simplicity, legibility, and capacity for artistic treatment. We are inclined to dispute the last claim, as to which we doubt whether "the barbarous irregular angularities of the German text" are not preferable. Commenting upon two episcopal thrones of stone—those of Augsburg and of Avignon—both of which have been engraved in M. Viollet Le Duc's *Dictionnaire de l'Architecture*, Mr. Waring goes out of his way to criticize unfavourably the drawing of that very clever artist and writer. This is unnecessary. M. Viollet Le Duc did not profess to give an "architect's drawing" of these curious chairs, but merely to illustrate the subject of ancient episcopal seats. Is it possible that Mr. Waring, who adduces other examples of such seats, forgets the one in Canterbury Cathedral? But many who pursue foreign architecture or ecclesiology despise, or are ignorant of, our home examples of ancient art. The next plates borrow their subjects from Spanish sources—architectural details from the cloisters of Las Huelgas, near Burgos, and from St. John's, Toledo. These are of Romanesque character, earlier than any of the specimens of Spanish art with which Mr. Street's recent volume has made us familiar. A carved sarcophagus, or high tomb, from Las Huelgas would give hints for a modern adaptation as a tomb. It is richly carved with armorial shields. Passing from Spain to Italy, Mr. Waring next illustrates the bronze doors of the Duomo at Pisa, a work of Bonanno in 1180. Some rude sculpture from Lucca, by "Robertus Magister" (1151) and Biduino (1180), serves as a contrast to some specimens of the handiwork of Nicola Pisano, who revived art in Italy in the early part of the thirteenth century. But better examples of Nicola's skill might have been found. One figure, indeed, here given is merely copied from a bad engraving in Agincourt. Far better are the sculptured figures from Auxerre, one of which, representing Samson slaying the lion, is a perfectly nude figure, the only known example of a mediæval attempt at representing exact anatomy. A series of grotesque carved panels from Lyons is very interesting, but it seems to us that the author has wrongly interpreted many of these pleasant conceits. For example, the centaur-like monk—if he be a monk—is not "slaying the devil with a leg of mutton," but is brandishing the joint in one hand and an eel in the other. We suppose few finer specimens of mediæval fortification exist than the tower and curtain from Villeneuve-lès-Avignon, of which a perspective view is here given.

Following a rough chronological order, Mr. Waring next proceeds to illustrate the later florid Gothic by specimens of the royal monuments at Miraflores in Castile, and other Spanish carvings of figures and foliage from Toledo and Burgos. Then wood-carving has its turn, and examples are given of the magnificent stall-work of Ulm, Magdeburg, and Vienna. George Strylin of Ulm, and Anton Pilgrim of Vienna, carved their own portraits, in most life-like style, in their works—a precedent which has not been followed in our modern stall-work at Ely or Chichester. We know not whether the carvings from the stalls of San Zenone, Verona, are not finer and bolder than any of the

\* *Illustrations of Architecture and Ornament*. Drawn and Etched on Copper by J. B. Waring. London: Day & Son, Limited. 1865.

German master-pieces. Mr. Waring has a good eye for the piquant minutiae of Gothic design. Witness the dainty stone lamp from St. Stephen's, Vienna, and, in metal work, the elaborate "corona," or chandelier, from Hildesheim, and the latten font at Brunswick. Moorish decorative art is represented, very efficiently, by a selection of specimens from the Alhambra, from S. M. la Blanca, Toledo, and from the Alcazar of Segovia. There are few finer monuments in existence than the recumbent effigy of Archbishop Ernest, at Magdeburg, executed in bronze by Peter Vischer (1510). We know of but one modern effigy in bronze—the figure of Dr. Mill, in Ely Cathedral; and that was cast by the electrolyte process. It is to be regretted that this material is not more often employed in monumental works. Of decorative iron work, we doubt whether Mr. Waring has uniformly chosen the best examples for modern imitation. There is no branch of art in which it is more easy to be too florid and exuberant. But some of the simpler and sterner designs are very beautiful, and full of fancy and originality. That modern workers in iron can successfully rival the ancients may be seen in a wrought-iron screen lately executed for the church of St. Andrew's, Wells Street, by Hardman of Birmingham, from the designs of Mr. Street. Even if its *motif* was suggested by part of the famous Fugger Chapel screen at Augsburg, many critics think the modern work an improvement upon the original. The Maximilian Museum at Augsburg, which possesses an almost unrivalled collection of ancient metal-work, has supplied numerous examples to Mr. Waring's volume. English art is only represented, we believe, in these plates by sketches of a floriated mace-holder from the town-hall at Exeter, and by an old Norfolk poker, which is furnished with projecting bars so as to hinder its end, when red-hot, from touching the ground. This precaution has long been abandoned in modern pokers. Other treasures of mediæval design are to be found in these fascinating etchings. For example, fountains from Italy, picturesque Renaissance towers from Spain, the most whimsical of turrets and angle-windows from Germany, France, and Italy, elaborate timber-fronts of houses from the old German towns, drinking-horns and tenure-horns from Continental museums, and suggestive mural tablets and vertical monumental effigies from Holland. Finally, there is a series of studies by the author of many common plants and flowers as they would be treated conventionally for decorative use. Many of these are clever and effective, and will be useful to students. The whole volume, we repeat, is thoroughly deserving of encouragement by all who are fond of mediæval design.

#### FRENCH LITERATURE.

THE new work of M. Frégier\* is not only an excellent contribution to the history of modern jurisprudence; it may also be read with advantage by all who wish to study thoroughly the social state of a large and important section of the Jewish community. M. Frégier has for several years held a high post as a magistrate in the French colony of Northern Africa; he is known by many treatises, both on law and on the condition of Algeria; he has been mixed up with the controversial discussions arising from the peculiar position of the Algerine Jews; and therefore he seems peculiarly qualified to handle the subject which he now undertakes to bring before the public. His book may be considered as consisting of three distinct parts, answering to the three following questions:—1. What was the position of the Jews under the Mussulman domination? 2. What has it become since the conquest of 1830? 3. What should it be for the future? The first topic is very briefly disposed of. The Israelites subjected to the rule of the followers of Mahomet were exactly in the same state as their fellow-religionists in Europe during the days, first, of feudalism, and then of absolute monarchy. Incomparably superior in civilization and in morality to the pirates whose yoke they were compelled to bear, they remained isolated on the African shore, and were treated as a vanquished race. We can imagine, therefore, the feelings of joy with which they hailed the expedition conducted by Count de Bourmont, and the taking of Algiers by the French. It would have been, however, impossible for the new Government to fly in the face of strong prejudices by at once conferring upon the Jews of Africa the rank and privileges of French citizens; they were assimilated to the Mussulman population, and thus only partially raised from the abnormal position which they had previously occupied. M. Frégier contends that the time has now come for the French Government to take a fresh and final step in advance. He shows the innumerable evils of the present state of things, and, from his thorough knowledge of the African Jews, their habits, their wants, their longings, and their peculiar legislation, he demonstrates that their immediate and collective naturalization is a measure which should not be delayed.

Although so many books have been published on the history of France, varying in proportions from the short *résumé* to the bulky narrative, M. Dareste thinks that there is still room for another.† He accordingly gives us the two first instalments of a work which has originated with the lectures delivered by him during the last sixteen years at the Lyons *Faculté des Lettres*. A careful examination of this new *Histoire de France* has not enabled us to discover anything very striking in the way either of general observation or of scientific criticism; but M. Dareste has

evidently consulted the best and most recent authorities, he is accurate and copious in his illustrations, and can be recommended as a good guide for beginners. The second volume takes us only as far as the reign of Charles VI.

If we consider attentively the leading events which make up the history of the world, we find that they often present a twofold character. On one of their sides they give rise to doubt, on the other they offer unmistakable features of positive certainty. They may be compared to monuments of which one half is plunged in darkness, while the other half stands out in the broadest daylight. The immediate causes of these events, the manner in which they are carried out, the details of the execution, can rarely be ascertained with any amount of accuracy. When, on the contrary, we examine the events themselves, their results, and the share they have had in determining the progress of mankind, we are immediately in possession of incontestable data. Thus, to quote one example, the various particulars of the battle of Waterloo are still a subject of debate; the share taken in it by such or such persons is not yet duly ascertained; and the world has been deluged with books and pamphlets on every side of the question. Yet all are agreed that a battle was fought at Waterloo, that it was lost by Napoleon, and that its results were the restoration of constitutional government in France. M. Prévost-Paradol thus explains, in his preface\*, the difference between special and universal history. He then points out how a treatise on the philosophy of history must not be confounded with a general survey of the annals of mankind; he strongly enforces the duty of the historian to uphold the great laws of justice and of morality; and he finally adverts to the improvements he has introduced in this second edition of his work. An appendix of notes terminates each volume.

We question whether the history of the French Revolution has ever been presented in so concise, so lucid, and so thoroughly accurate a form as in M. Edgar Quinet's recent production.† The causes of that great event, the most salient features of its various episodes, and the deeds of the personages who played a part in it, are described in a few pregnant chapters in which every word tells, although there is no affectation of aphoristic wisdom or of obscure profundity. Placed by unfortunate circumstances far from the centre of political activity, condemned to be a mere spectator after having been an active performer in the drama of public life, M. Edgar Quinet is peculiarly fitted to take up the pen of the philosophic historian. The work before us, divided into twenty-four books, treats of literature and of society in general, as well as of politics; each book includes a number of short chapters, and M. Quinet has enjoyed the benefit of access to unpublished memoirs of one of the leading revolutionists. It would be easy to quote striking passages if our space allowed; we must, however, mention the ingenious explanation given of the apathy of the Paris *bourgeoisie* during the massacres of September, and also the author's estimate of the Reign of Terror. M. Quinet draws an admirable parallel between the armies of 1792 and those of Napoleon during the Empire, showing how, without any commissariat, without organization, without experience, Dumouriez' soldiers immortalized the name of France, whilst the well-trained legions of the Emperor depended for their success on the prestige of one man, and had no faith in the merits of the cause they were supposed to maintain. *Militarism* and *administrativism*—if we may use such words—have always proved the bane of France; such is M. Quinet's conclusion, and it will be readily endorsed by every intelligent observer. Where liberty does not exist, the ordinary sources of prosperity for a nation become sterile; and where civil progress is sought independently of religion, nothing stable, nothing permanent, can be expected.

M. Louis Blanc is another thinker who knows by experience what revolutions are, and how frequently they only serve to furnish despotism with its most unscrupulous tools. Exile has given him the opportunity of studying closely the workings of a system of government very different both from that under which he had lived, and from that which he aimed at introducing amongst his fellow-citizens. The *Lettres sur l'Angleterre*‡ are the result of M. Louis Blanc's residence in England, and we doubt not that they will have, in their collected form, the success they obtained when they appeared as the *feuilletons* of a daily newspaper. The two volumes before us begin with the year 1861, and end with the session of 1863. As might have been expected from the circumstances under which they were originally written, they do not exhibit any method, and the only system we can trace throughout is that which results from the economical and political theories of the author. There are two points for which M. Louis Blanc deserves special praise, and which claim notice here because they distinguish him from the majority of French journalists. The first is that, strong as are his opinions about Imperial institutions and the Napoleonic dynasty, he never condescends to scurrility or abuse. In the second place, he is very fair in his opinions of English habits, English institutions, and English public men; his eulogy is discriminating, and his censures are, for the most part, such as Englishmen themselves must acknowledge to be just.

The historian of religious liberty, M. Dargaud, has written a highly entertaining and suggestive volume on Queen Elizabeth.§

\* *Essai sur l'Histoire Universelle*. Par M. Prévost-Paradol. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

† *La Révolution*. Par Edgar Quinet. Paris: Lacroix et C<sup>ie</sup>.

‡ *Lettres sur l'Angleterre*. Par M. Louis Blanc. Paris: Lacroix.

§ *Histoire d'Élisabeth d'Angleterre*. Par J. M. Dargaud. Paris: Lacroix.

\* *Les Juifs Algériens, leur Passé, leur Présent, leur Avenir, &c.* Par C. Frégier. Paris: Michel Lévy.

† *Histoire de France, depuis les Origines jusqu'à nos Jours*. Par M. Dareste. Vols. 1, 2.



It is divided into twelve books, the concluding ones containing an account of the great men who flourished in England during the latter part of the sixteenth century and the beginning of the seventeenth—Raleigh, Shakespeare, and Bacon. M. Dargaud makes a point of consulting, not only MSS. and printed books, but also pictorial authorities, such as engravings, drawings, paintings, &c. His judgment of Elizabeth is extremely favourable, and is only equalled by his enthusiasm for the great writers who contributed so much to the glory of her reign. After the Queen's death, he says, she still lived in Shakespeare, Bacon, and Raleigh, and no history of the "bright Occidental star" is complete without a biographical sketch of these distinguished men.

M. Zeller has published the second volume of his *Entretiens sur l'Histoire*.\* He now takes us through the middle ages, and in a pleasing and graceful style describes the most striking events of that epoch. The first four lectures, or conversations, treat of Mahomet and of Islamism. After having traced the progress of the new religion, the establishment of the Khalifate, and the conquests of the Arabs, M. Zeller shows them in their opposition to Christianity, and he draws a very ingenious parallel between Charlemagne and Haroun-al-Raschid, who may be considered as having been respectively the embodiments of Western and Eastern civilization during the eighth century. The fifth chapter contains a *résumé* on feudalism and chivalry; we have then an account of mediæval theocracy, identified with Gregory VII. and Bernard de Clairvaux; the Crusades come next; and a lucid sketch of the municipal revolution amongst our neighbours under Louis VII. is followed by a lecture on Saint Louis, the first true King of France.

Several of the Duke de Persigny's friends had, it seems, requested M. Joseph Delaroc to collect all the speeches, circulars, addresses, letters, &c., written or delivered by the late Minister of the Interior, and to bring them out for their special edification, together with a biographical notice. But M. Henri Plon, printer and publisher to His Majesty, justly thought that M. de Persigny belongs to the Empire, and not exclusively to the department of the Loire; and hence we have a volume intended to excite the rapturous admiration of the general public, instead of merely seeking to gratify a select circle.† M. Delaroc's biography of M. de Persigny is a model of that style of panegyric which is exemplified in the works of Sidonius Apollinaris, and which is known in France by the appropriate epithet of *flagornerie*. It is impossible to conceive anything more ridiculously eulogistic and obsequious. The volume itself contains nothing but what we have already read in the *Moniteur*, and we cannot see very clearly the use of publishing it.

The history of the French Revolution is one of such magnitude, and includes so many subjects of importance, that, in treating of it, the principle of the division of labour might be advantageously kept in view. Military affairs, for example, furnish enough to occupy the attention of one historian; the progress of literature and philosophy, if duly considered, affords ample materials for an extensive work; and it is the same with questions of diplomacy, administration, and finance. One of M. Thiers' faults is that he has entirely neglected some of the most characteristic elements in the history of revolutionary and Imperial France, whilst he has touched only *en passant* episodes which required a far more thorough handling. And here it is that the value of a work like the *Histoire de la Vendée Militaire*‡ is peculiarly felt. The name of M. Crétineau-Joly, associated as it generally is with Ultramontanist and Legitimist opinions, might lead one to distrust the accuracy of his account of the Vendean insurrection; but a careful perusal of the book will soon remove any such impression, and we have no hesitation in saying that the *Histoire de la Vendée Militaire*, for its impartiality, its calmness of statement, its graphic style, and the manly tone in which it is written, fully deserves the popularity which has brought it through five large editions. It includes not only the history of the Vendéens during the first revolution, but an account of the attempts made by them under the reign of Louis Philippe. The faults of the Royalist leaders are pointed out with as much care as their merits, and every credit is given to the qualities which distinguished generals like Brune, Haxo, and Hoche from the Santerres and the Carriers of the National Convention. The first volume contains a large and useful map of the scene of the war.

It is extraordinary how many fanciful theories on cosmology, astronomy, meteorology, and other cognate sciences have lately been produced in France. The publication of a second edition of M. Flammarion's *Mondes Imaginaires*§ proves that such vagaries are acceptable to a large class of readers, and that now, just as much as in Molière's time, ladies should be recommended

Ne pas aller chercher ce qu'on fait dans la lune.

We have before us, for example, a large octavo by Baron d'Espiard de Colonge||, so ill-written that the style can scarcely be called French, and the purpose of which, as far as we can make it out, is to prove that the geological formation of the globe is to be accounted

for chiefly by the fall of aerolites from the other planets. The consummation of all things will be brought about through a literal tumbling down of heaven, and with this leading proposition the author connects disquisitions of the most rambling and desultory kind on atheism, mythology, the pyramids, fraternity, &c.

When M. Flammarion keeps strictly to astronomical topics he writes sensibly, and shows that he is master of his subject; but a man possessed by the *esprit de système* must always drag in his particular crotchet, and therefore the final chapter of the *Merveilles Célestes*\* contains an excursus on the plurality of inhabited worlds. The book itself is a useful and carefully prepared manual of astronomy for young students. Thirty woodcuts illustrate the principal topics discussed, and reproduce the planets, constellations, comets, and nebulae. This first instalment of Messrs. Hachette's juvenile series, *La Bibliothèque des Merveilles*, is certainly one of the best.

M. Paul de Molènes, who belonged to the famous *garde mobile* of 1848 before he joined the regular army, had the good luck to take an active share in all the recent campaigns which have added to the glories of the French flag; and under the title *Commentaires d'un Soldat*† he published a very interesting account of his military experiences. The second edition of this work has just appeared, and deserves a short mention. Descriptions of battles and sieges are, of course, stirring enough to rivet the attention of the general reader, but much more than this will be found in the *Commentaires*. Saint-Arnaud, Canrobert, Macmahon, Trochu, and Lord Raglan here move before us; their characters are appreciated, and their deeds of valour duly recognised; and we feel that we are studying a trustworthy document on some of the most important episodes of contemporary history. The final chapter, composed by M. de Molènes from family papers, is interesting as a contrast. After living for three hundred pages amongst the Zouaves, the *cent-gardes*, and the grenadiers of the Imperial army, we like to see what were the habits of a musketeer of 1709, and to know something about the soldiers of Louis XIV. at the battle of Malplaquet.

Brittany has already felt the influence of modern civilization; railways are bringing it within reach of improvements of every kind, and the Transatlantic line of steamers between Brest and New York will soon, we suppose, deprive old Armorica of most of its peculiar features. The lower part of the province, however, the Finistère more especially, still clings to old traditions, and there the traveller must go who would know what Bretons were in days of yore. M. Max Radiguet, accordingly, wanders in that direction‡, and the journal of his excursion, submitted to the public after having been written for a friend, conducts us in succession to the bustle of an important maritime city and of a manufacturing town, the quiet of a picturesque village, and the rural scenery of a delightful and secluded glen.

M. Champfleury, whose *History of Ancient Caricature* we have already had occasion to notice, now jumps at one bound over several centuries, and in his second volume§ brings us down at once to our own times. His purpose in so doing is sufficiently explained by his preface. Under the present *régime* political caricature no longer flourishes; it is closely watched and unmercifully fettered. We are therefore liable to forget the important part which it played during the first half of the present century, and we learn almost with surprise that its history is closely connected with the history of France. In his treatment of the subject M. Champfleury has solved the difficult problem of being accurate without being personal, for we must remember that many of the notabilities on whom Daumier, Philipon, and Gavarni bestowed the immortality of ridicule are still alive, and would easily be recognised if they were once more to receive the honours of small pica and woodcuts. Robert Macaire, Mayeux, and M. Prudhomme are the most prominent types of contemporary French caricature. Respectively identified with Daumier, Traviès, and Henry Monnier, they were the heroes of many legends which for thirty years amused the Parisians, and they supply ample materials for three very curious chapters in M. Champfleury's work. The appendix contains an account of sundry other notabilities, and a short conclusion vindicates the use and the morality of what some fastidious persons would be inclined to call the degradation of the art of drawing.

Two fresh *liaraisons* of M. Germer-Baillière's *Bibliothèque de Philosophie Contemporaine* have just been issued. M. Schœbel, in his *Philosophie de la Raison pure*||, takes as his starting-point the law of indefinite motion, and thence endeavours to deduce a whole system of metaphysics, the principles of which, condensed in seventeen aphorisms, are entirely independent of every revealed truth. Whatever may be the merits of M. Schœbel's theory, his exposition of it is spoiled by a useless display of erudition, and by a jargon which it requires some effort to understand. M. Beauquier, on the contrary¶, expresses his supreme and, we must say, well-grounded contempt for those pedants who cannot treat of the simplest question without dragging in long-winded sentences about the objective and the subjective, the *ego* and the *non-ego*. His aim is simply to give a short description of the character of music, its laws, and its

\* *Les Merveilles Célestes*. Par C. Flammarion. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

† *Commentaires d'un Soldat*. Par P. de Molènes. Paris: Lévy.

‡ *A travers la Bretagne*. Par Max Radiguet. Paris: Lévy.

§ *Histoire de la Caricature Moderne*. Par Champfleury. Paris: Dentu.

|| *Philosophie de la Raison pure*. Par M. Schœbel. Paris: Baillière.

¶ *Philosophie de la Musique*. Par Charles Beauquier. Paris: Baillière.

\* *Entretiens sur l'Histoire—Moyen Âge*. Par M. Zeller. Paris: Didier.

† *Le Duc de Persigny et les Doctrines de l'Empire*. Par Joseph Delaroc. Paris: Plon.

‡ *Histoire de la Vendée Militaire*. Par J. Crétineau-Joly. Cinquième édition. Paris: Plon.

§ *Les Mondes Imaginaires*. Par L. Flammarion. Deuxième édition. Paris: Didier.

|| *La Chute du Ciel*, &c. Par le Baron d'Espiard de Colonge. Paris: Dentu.

effects upon man considered as an intelligent being; and this he does with a clearness and ability which render the *Philosophie de la Musique* very agreeable reading.

We have allowed ourselves little room to speak of the most recent novels; but it is hardly worth while to mention a book of which the heroine belongs to a sphere of society even lower than the *demi-monde*\*, or one where English life, and English clerical life particularly, is so grotesquely misrepresented† that nothing can be more ridiculous.

\* *La Confession de Claude*. Par Émile Zola. Paris: Lacroix.

† *Haydee Étude* par Jules Noirier. Paris: Faure.

## ADVERTISEMENTS.

**ROYAL ENGLISH OPERA, COVENT GARDEN (OPERA COMPANY, Limited).**—On Monday next, and during the Week, CHRISTMAS EVE. After which, at Eight o'clock, the Great Christmas Pantomime, ALADDIN AND THE WONDERFUL LAMP. With Magnificent Scenery, Costumes, and Decorations. (See Daily Advertisements.) Morning Performances every Wednesday and Saturday, at Two o'clock. Places may be secured (free of charge for booking) at the Box Office, which is open from Ten till Five. Acting Manager, Mr. Edward Murray; Stage Manager, Mr. W. West.

**MONDAY POPULAR CONCERTS.**—St. James's Hall.—BEETHOVEN NIGHT, on Monday Evening, January 15. Violin, Herr Strauss; Pianoforte, Mr. Franklin Taylor; Vocalist, Mr. Sims Reeves. Conductor, Mr. Benedict. Sofa Stalls, 5s.; Balcony, 3s.; Admission, 1s.—Tickets at Chappell's, Co.'s, 50 New Bond Street; Keith, Prowse, & Co.'s, 48 Chancery; and at the Hall, 28 Piccadilly.

**PHILHARMONIC SOCIETY.**—Professor STERNDALÉ BENNETT, Conductor.—FIRST CONCERT, March 5. Subscription to the Series of Eight Concerts, 4 Guineas; Family Tickets, 3 Guineas each; Single Tickets, 15s.—Tickets for former Subscribers will be ready January 29; for new Subscribers, February 17.

**ST. JAMES'S HALL.**—Miss EMMA HARDINGE, the celebrated Extemporaneous Lecturer, who has resided for the last ten years in the United States, will deliver an ORATION on AMERICA, in St. James's Hall, on Saturday Afternoon, January 13, 1866, commencing at Three o'clock. Miss Hardinge has been lecturing in the United States on the great Political, Social, and other questions of the day, and has been everywhere greeted by vast and most enthusiastic audiences. During the campaign for the re-election of President Lincoln, Miss Hardinge delivered thirty-two Orations in thirty-eight days. She also spoke the famous New York Oration on Mr. Lincoln's death. She speaks entirely extemporaneously, and is pronounced by the American Press to be "the most wonderfully gifted and eloquent of living orators." Admission.—Area, 1s.; Balcony, 2s.; Stalls (reserved), 3s.—Tickets at Mitchell's, Bond Street; at Chappell's, New Bond Street; of Keith, Prowse, & Co., Chancery; and at Austin's Ticket-Office, 28 Piccadilly.

**STODARE.**—The Holidays.—THEATRE OF MYSTERY, Egyptian Hall.—MARVELS in MAGIC and VENTRILOQUISM, as performed by command before Her Majesty the Queen and the Royal Family, at Windsor Castle, Tuesday Evening, November 21, 1865.—Great Attractions for the Holidays.—Magic, Ventriloquism, the Marvelous SPHYNX, the Birth of Hesperus, and STODARE'S celebrated Indian Jacket Trick, as only performed by him. Every Evening at Eight. Wednesday and Saturday at Three. Stalls at Mitchell's, Old Bond Street, and Box-office, Egyptian Hall.—Admission, 1s. and 2s.; Stalls, 3s.

"Almost miraculous."—*Vile Times*, April 18, 1865.

**SOCIETY OF PAINTERS IN WATER-COLOURS.**—The WINTER EXHIBITION OF SKETCHES AND STUDIES by the MEMBERS is NOW OPEN, 5 Pall Mall East. Nine till Dark.—Admission, 1s. On dark days the Gallery is lighted by Gas. WILLIAM CALLOW, Secretary.

**EXETER THEOLOGICAL COLLEGE.** Visitor.—The Lord Bishop of EXETER. Council.—The Dean and Chapter of EXETER. Principal.—The Rev. R. C. PASCOE, M.A., Fellow of Exeter College, Oxford. This College is designed for Graduates of the Universities who desire to prepare themselves for Ordination.—For particulars apply to the Rev. the Principal of the Theological College, the Close, Exeter.

**KENSINGTON COLLEGIATE SCHOOL,** 39 Kensington Square, W. Head-Master—F. NASH, Esq., late Principal of Farnham, Netherleigh Hill. Assisted by E. THORNTON, Esq., M.A., Trin. Coll., Cambridge; Professor HOSKINS, F.R.G.S., King's Coll., London; Mons. ALPHONSE; Herr SCHNEIDER; Herr FRANK; and others. Tuition Fee—Twelve, Nine, or Six Guineas per Annum. Term commencing January 16.

**CLARENDON HOUSE, COLLEGIATE AND COMMERCIAL SCHOOL,** Kennington Road, S. Principal—Dr. PINCHES, F.R.S., F.R.A.S., F.A.S. A Prospectus containing full particulars, with lists of Successful Candidates at Public Examinations for many years past, apply as above.—The next Term will commence January 15, 1866.

**KING EDWARD the SIXTH'S FREE GRAMMAR SCHOOL,** Birmingham.

The GOVERNORS of this School are about to appoint a SECOND MASTER, whose duty will be to Superintend the English School, under the general direction of the Head Master, the Rev. CHARLES EVANS, M.A.

The Second Master must have taken at least the degree of Master of Arts of the University of Oxford or Cambridge, and must be a member of the Established Church of England, and in Holy Orders.

A preference will be given, *ceteris paribus*, to Gentlemen of Mathematical and Scientific attainments.

The Second Master will have a fixed Salary of £500 per annum, and an Allowance of £150 per annum for House Rent and Taxes, and the privilege of taking Twelve Boarders, on terms to be fixed by himself.

There are Ten Exhibitions of £50 a year tenable at any College in Oxford or Cambridge, which are open in certain cases to Boarders.

It is requested that Gentlemen will refrain from making personal application to the Governors or Head Master.

Candidates for the Office are requested to transmit their Application and Testimonials, with Twenty-four printed copies, before the 15th day of January next, to J. W. WHATELEY, Esq., Waterloo Street, Birmingham, the Secretary, from whom further information may be obtained.

December 18, 1865. J. W. WHATELEY, Secretary.

**CHRIST'S COLLEGE, FINCHLEY, N.**

Five Miles from the Regent's Park.

Warden—Rev. T. R. WHITE, M.A., St. John's College, Cambridge; Rector of Finchley.

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The Buildings are large and convenient, with excellent Playgrounds attached.

There are Four Scholarships at £50 a year each, tenable at and open only to the Pupils of the School.

The Year is divided into Three Terms, commencing about January 20th, April 25th, and September 15th.

Fees, payable in advance, 18 Guineas per Term. Medical Attendance, 10s. 6d. per Term. Play—6d. 7s. per Term.

The only Extras are Books, Stationery, Instrumental Music, and actual Disbursements. Applications to be made to the Rev. T. R. WHITE, Rector, Finchley, N.

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Classes under Signor Garzia, Mrs. Street, J. B. Chatterton, Esq., J. Benedict, Esq., H. Praeger, Esq., Madame Louise Michau, Geo. Macdonald, Esq., Monsieur A. Roche, Dr. Heilmann, Mrs. Harrison, W. Cave Thomas, Esq., J. Radford, Esq., W. H. D. Rowe, Esq., M.A., Signor Valletta, W. Moore, Esq., A. Chiosso, Esq.

The JUNIOR TERM begins January 8. The SENIOR TERM begins January 25. Prospectuses, containing Terms, &c., may be had on application.

**EDUCATION at EASTBOURNE.**—Belle Vue House, Grand Parade. Principals.—the Misses JAMES. The ensuing Term will commence on Thursday, January 18.—References and Prospectuses may be had on application.

**HEATHFIELD HOUSE SCHOOL,** Eltham Road, Blackheath, S.E.—The Rev. T. C. PRATT, B.D., receives PUPILS, to prepare them for the Universities, the Public Schools, and for Professional Life. Parents are invited to see the School-rooms, the Dormitories, and the Domestic Arrangements.

**QUEEN'S COLLEGE, London, 67 and 68 Harley Street, W.** Incorporated by Royal Charter, 1853, for the General Education of Ladies, and for granting Certificates of Knowledge.

Patrons.  
HER MAJESTY the QUEEN,  
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Visitor.—The LORD BISHOP of LONDON.  
Principal.—The Very Rev. the DEAN of WESTMINSTER.  
Lady Resident—Miss PARRY.

The College will reopen for the Lent Term on Monday, January 22. Individual Instruction is given in Vocal and Instrumental Music to Pupils attending at least one Class. Special Conversation Classes in Modern Languages will be formed on the entry of Six Names. Arrangements are made for receiving Boarders. Prospectuses, with full particulars as to Fees, Scholarships, Classes, &c., may be had on application to Mrs. WILLIAMS, at the College Office.

E. H. PLUMPTRE, M.A., Dean.  
Lady Superintendent—Miss HAY.  
Assistant—Miss WALKER.

The CLASSES of the School will reopen on Monday, January 22. Pupils are received from the age of Five upwards. Prospectuses, with full particulars, may be had on application to Mrs. WILLIAMS, at the College Office.

E. H. PLUMPTRE, M.A., Dean.  
**QUEEN'S COLLEGE SCHOOL, 67 and 68 Harley Street, W.**  
A Special Course of FOUR LECTURES on the HISTORY of WESTMINSTER ABBEY will be given by the DEAN of WESTMINSTER, on January 22nd, 24th, 26th, and 27th, at Three P.M. Admission to the Course, 10s.; to Single Lectures, 2s. 6d. Gentlemen must be introduced by some one known to a Member of the Council or Committee.

E. H. PLUMPTRE, M.A., Dean.

**HEVERSHAM GRAMMAR SCHOOL,** near Milnthorpe, Westmoreland. Head-Master—Rev. J. H. SHARPLES, M.A., formerly Scholar of St. John's College, Cambridge. BOARDERS are received, and prepared either for the Universities or Commerce, at 20, 25, or 30 guineas per annum, according to age. Seven Exhibitions, of different values, from about £50 to £100 a year, are connected with the School, and are open to all Pupils.—N.B. Wanted, a HALF-PUPIL.

**THE TERRACE, ASKERN, Doncaster.**—Mr. H. MILLARD, B.A., late of Oakwell Hall, receives PUPILS. He has Testimonials from the Rev. Dr. Hook, Dean of Chichester; the Rev. Canon Heald, Vicar of Birstall; the Rev. Dr. Barry, Principal of Cheltenham College; and others. At the last Oxford Local Examination, TWO of his PUPILS gained Certificates; one, whose Age was only Twelve and a Half, having passed in the Preliminary Subjects, Faith and Religion, Greek, Latin, and Mathematics. Commencement of Lent Term, January 17, 1866.

**CIVIL SERVICE OF INDIA.**—Open Competition of 1866. THE EXAMINATION will commence on March 19. Applications from Candidates who must be Natural-born Subjects of Her Majesty, and between the ages of Seventeen and Twenty-one, will be received until February 1. A Copy of the Regulations may be obtained from the SECRETARY, Civil Service Commission, Dean's Yard, London, S.W.

**CIVIL SERVICE OF INDIA.**—Special Preparation.—There will shortly be TWO NON-RESIDENT VACANCIES in a Small Class, the Members of which are prepared exclusively for the Open Competitions and "Further" Examinations. Each Candidate is assisted daily by a Staff of experienced L.C.S. Tutors.—ORIENT, 51 Pall Mall, S.W.

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**THE ARMY, NAVY, and CIVIL SERVICE.**—Mr. JAMES R. CHRISTIE, F.R.S., F.A.S., late First Mathematical Master at the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, has VACANCIES for Pupils at his Residence, 9 Arundel Gardens, Notting Hill.

**INDIA CIVIL SERVICE.**—CANDIDATES for the Civil Service of India are PREPARED for the Competitive Examination at the CIVIL SERVICE HALL, 12 Princes Square, Baywater, W., by A. D. SPRANGE, M.A., assisted by Teachers of the highest standing. At each of the Examinations for the last Seven Years, Students of Mr. SPRANGE'S have taken very high places.—A Prospectus, giving Terms, References, List of Teachers, and Successful Candidates, will be forwarded on application.

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In April, Pupils passing as Naval Cadets took 1st, 2nd, and 3rd, &c. places. In August, SIXTEEN Pupils passed as Naval Cadets, not one Pupils failing.

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Of last 33 Pupils sent up for Examination as Naval Cadets, 31 passed. The Pupils sent up in November to compete for Commissions in the Royal Marine Corps was SUCCESSFUL.

For every information, address Dr. SPICKERELL, as above.

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A List of the past Publications and Works in preparation for future years can be had on application.

Subscriptions for 1866 are now due. Ladies and Gentlemen desirous of joining the Society can do so on applying to H. T. STANTON, F.R.S., F.G.S., Secretary, Mountfield, Lewisham, near London, S.E.